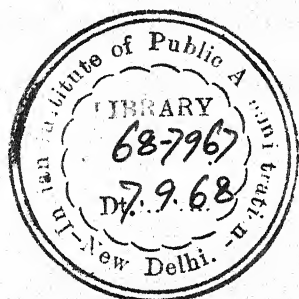


PERSONNEL ^{RECORD COPY}

ADMINISTRATION

-THE NEED FOR CHANGE

(Report of the Conference held during March 5-9, 1968)



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INDIAN INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
NEW DELHI.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

—THE NEED FOR CHANGE

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New Delhi
August 1968

CHAIRMAN

H. V. Kamath

VICE-CHAIRMAN

J. N. Khosla

PROGRAMME DIRECTOR

K. N. Butani

CONFERENCE ON PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

(March 5-9, 1968)

March 30, 1968

Dear Dr. Khosla,

I submit herewith the draft report on the Conference discussions.

With regards,

Yours sincerely

K.N. Butani
PROGRAMME DIRECTOR

Dr. J.N. Khosla,
Director,
Indian Institute of Public Administration,
New Delhi.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

*From Director, Indian Institute of Public Administration to
the Chairman, Administrative Reforms Commission.*

April 2, 1968

Dear Shri Hanumanthaiya,

I have great pleasure in forwarding to you the Report of the Conference on Personnel Administration which the IIPA organised during March 5-9, 1968, to support administrative reforms through:

- identifying major public personnel problems
- considering alternative remedies
- recommending new policies or programmes
- suggesting priorities as to most needed reform
- pointing to areas needing further study.

2. One thing on which the Conference was unanimous is the need for change—radical change—in the existing personnel system: to make it more task-oriented, to make it more professional, to make it more egalitarian in the matter of advancement and manning of higher administrative positions so as to utilise the best talent, develop the best talent and reward that talent in a productive manner.

3. Amongst other things, the value of training all through a man's career was greatly emphasized—training not only to enhance subject matter competence but general managerial attributes and capabilities also, without which effective administration is impossible.

4. The usefulness of the concepts and techniques of Position Classification was also generally endorsed. The

desirability of adoption of the essential ingredients of a Position Classification approach was never in question. It was the feasibility of covering all sectors of Government that led to the following caution: let us begin with a scientific job evaluation of all positions at present occupied by the All-India and Central (Class I) Services. We hope the A.R.C. will find the debate on Position Classification, included in this report, useful.

5. I am indeed grateful to you for not only having inaugurated the Conference but found time to sit through the morning session on March 7, 1968 when the subject of Position Classification was being presented. I am grateful to Shri H.V. Kamath for having guided the planning and deliberations of the Conference as its Chairman. I am thankful to the Members of the A.R.C. S/Shri H.C. Mathur, D.P. Mookerjee and V. Shankar and its Secretary Shri V.V. Chari for having taken keen interest in this Conference including chairing the various subject sessions. I am also thankful to Dr. C.D. Deshmukh for having agreed to deliver the concluding address on March 9, 1968.

6. My thanks are due to the officers of the A.R.C.—S/Shri N. Chidambaram, A.V. Seshanna, B.D. Sharma and Dr. S.C. Seth—and Shri M.M. Kohli, presently of the IIPA, for having collaborated with us in the planning of the Conference and the preparation of technical papers.

7. I am also thankful to Dr. O. Glenn Stahl, Director, Bureau of Policies and Standards, U.S. Civil Service Commission, for having come all the way from Washington to participate in this Conference and more particularly to make a presentation of Position Classification as a tool of personnel management. We are grateful to Ford Foundation for having made this possible and generally in making available the services of Mr. Ross Pollock, who, as you know, has been with us in the IIPA as Consultant on Public Administration for sometime now.

8. And lastly my thanks are due to K.N. Butani, presently of the IIPA, who, at short notice, agreed to assist in

the planning and programme direction of the Conference as well as the preparation of this report.

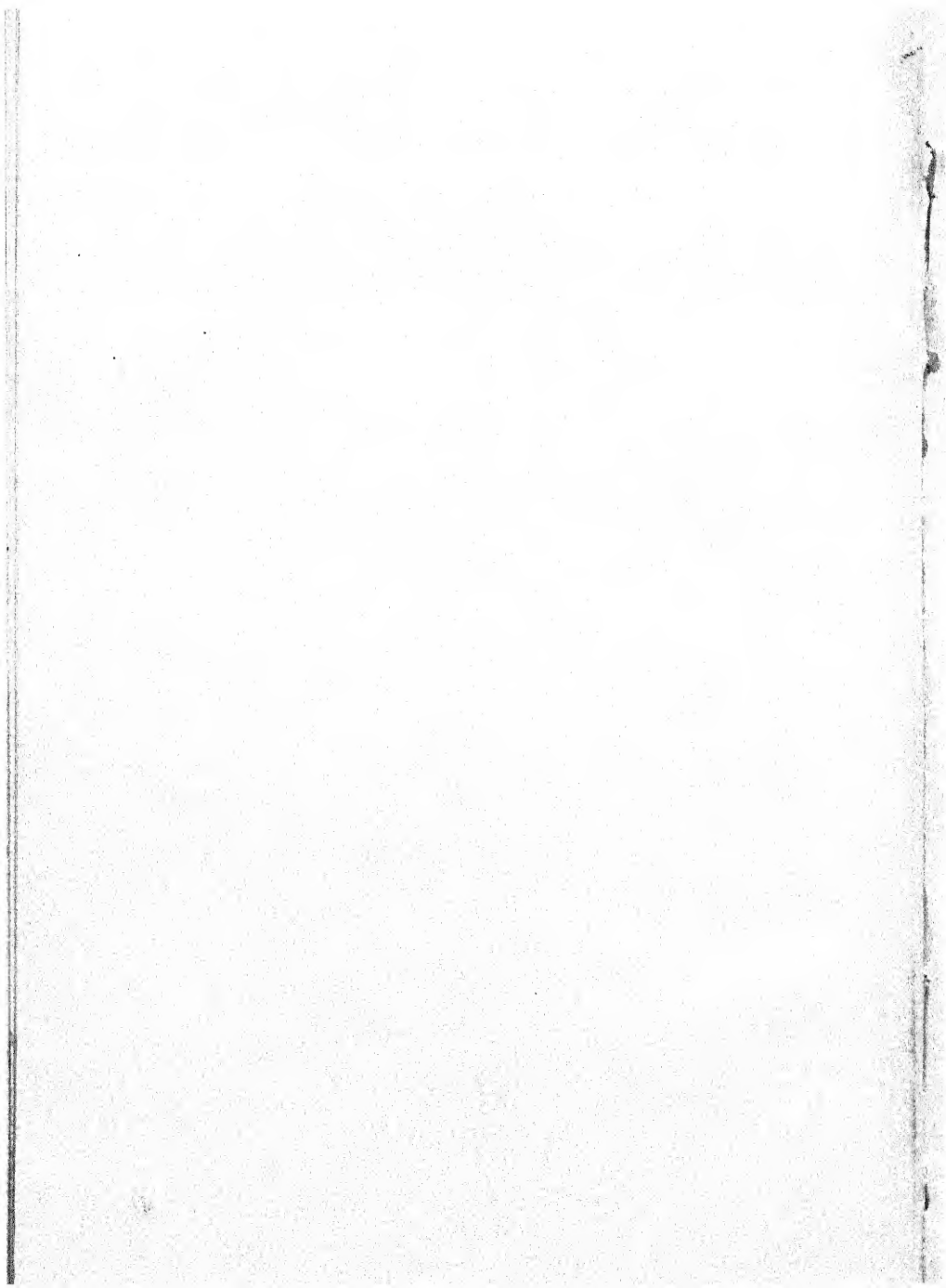
9. We hope the outcome of the deliberations of this Conference will be of some use to the A.R.C. in finalising its recommendation for reform in personnel administration in Government.

With regards,

Yours Sincerely,

(J.N. Khosla)

Shri K. Hanumanthaiya,
Chairman,
Administrative Reforms Commission,
New Delhi.



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INTRODUCTION

The Conference on Personnel Administration organised by the Institute of Public Administration during March 5-9, 1968, reached a near unanimous acceptance of the need for radical change in the existing personnel system to make it more task-oriented: to make it more professional; to make it more egalitarian in the matter of advancement and manning of higher administrative positions so as to utilise the best talent, develop the best talent and reward that talent in a productive manner. They urged defining each job in terms of duties, responsibilities and skill requirements through scientific job analysis and filling up of posts with men possessing the required skills and experience irrespective of the "service" or "cadre" they enter.

Recognition of the crucial importance of training—all through a man's career—was another area of major agreement. Many participants see the concept of the all-knowing "generalist" fast fading away and the need for specialisation even of the so-called "generalist". Simultaneously, they see a need for imbuing the "specialist" with the greater degree of "generalism" as he moves up the ladder of responsibility into the field of management. Only training, training and more training will equip personnel with the skills, technical as well as managerial, required to meet the demands of kaleidoscopic changes that are taking place in the modern environment. Such training is not mere orientation but a programme of continuous development of people. The participants agreed that the cost of training may seem large, but they are an investment of human resource development—not an expenditure without return.

The participants concluded that the existing personnel administration policies and practices, inherited from a colonial administration, have remained substantially the same even though political, economic and technological changes have added a new dimension to the size and complexity of government. Representatives of the Administrative Reforms

Commission reported that it has been seized of this problem of reform in the field of personnel management for some time. Three study teams were set up which have completed their work. The Vice-Chairman of the Conference felt that there was need to debate the major issues that would arise in any scheme of contemplated reform of the existing personnel system. If out of the debate some broad consensus emerged, he said, it would be passed on to the A.R.C. to facilitate formulation of its final recommendations.

In the following pages will be reported briefly the deliberations of the Conference organised by the I.I.P.A. during March 5-9, 1968, to debate the major issues in personnel administration reform. Members of Parliament, members of the Administrative Reforms Commission, senior officers of State Governments and Union Government, and academics of the Indian Institute of Public Administration as well as from outside, participated.

Dr. Glenn Stahl, Director, Bureau of Policies and Standards, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, and a leading professional authority on the subject of public personnel administration, participated in the Conference by invitation and more particularly presented the concepts and techniques of Position Classification as a tool of personnel administration.

This report does not follow the sequence of the discussions as they actually took place; it is organised around major issues on which a broad consensus was reached. While it focuses on the consensus, significant viewpoints "for" and "against" have also been presented.

PURPOSE

The purpose of the Conference was to :

- identify major public personnel problems;
- consider alternative remedies;
- recommend new policies or programmes;
- suggest priorities as to most needed reforms; and
- point to areas needing further study.

The report on matters at which the Conference reached consensus has been transmitted to the Administrative Reforms Commission.

ORGANISATION OF CONFERENCE SESSIONS

The Chairman of the Conference was Shri H.V. Kamath, Member, A.R.C., the Vice-Chairman, Dr. J.N. Khosla, Director, I.I.P.A. The Programme Director was Shri K.N. Butani.

The Conference began with an inaugural session on the afternoon of March 5, 1968. Shri K. Hanumanthaiya, Chairman, A.R.C. delivered the inaugural address (Annexure II).

This was followed by the key-note address by Shri H.V. Kamath (Annexure III).

The business sessions commenced the following day. Each such subject session had a separate Chairman.

The morning and the afternoon sessions on March 6, 1968, were both devoted to "Staffing Higher Administrative Positions". The Chairman of these two sessions was Shri H.C. Mathur, Member, A.R.C.

"Position Classification" and "A Rational Pay Policy" together took two sessions, the next day. The Chairman for these two sessions was Shri V.V. Chari, Secretary, A.R.C.

On March 8, 1968, the morning session was devoted to "Training and Career Development" under the chairmanship of Shri V. Shankar, Member, A.R.C. As the discussions did not conclude, the session was extended, informally, by a brief sitting after the concluding address the next day. The afternoon session on March 8, 1968, was devoted to "Employer-employee Relations" under the chairmanship of Shri D.B. Mookerjee, Member, A.R.C.

The Conference concluded on March 9, 1968 with an address on the "Implementation of Personnel Administrative Reforms" by Shri C.D. Deshmukh (Annexure IV).

The agenda with the list of invitees is presented in Annexure I to this Report. Five working papers, which formed the basis of discussions have been reproduced in Annexure V.

THE NEED FOR CHANGE

*The need for radical change in personnel administration was the recurrent theme throughout the Conference.**

In his inaugural address Shri K. Hanumanthaiya observed that "the British left behind an administrative machine which was meant for colonial administration. We have not, however, during the last twenty years since we attained Independence, made any substantial changes in the system so as to reorient it to the goals of development and welfare. The new and expanding developmental responsibilities of the Government call for some basic change in our administrative structure and personnel policies—a change in kind, not just in degree." He added further: "on the question of rationalising the structure of jobs, pay scales and staffing arrangements, I would like to state some general principles which may be suitably applied. First of all, *the duties and requirements of each job may be defined clearly and in detail on the basis of a scientific analysis of its content.* In the second place, the arrangement of various jobs or positions within an administrative organisation, or for purposes of staffing by a particular grade or service, may be determined primarily by the administrative tasks and functions to be performed. Thirdly, *the administrative structure may be so re-cast as to provide adequate opportunities for self-development and self-fulfilment of each Government official.* This would help bring about a fusion of the organisational goals with the personal goals of the civil servants and thereby promote organisational commitment on their part. This general approach which I have outlined would help to build into the structure itself a base for higher motivation and fixation of responsibility."

In his key-note address Shri H.V. Kamath also emphasised the need for change. Speaking of the manning of higher administrative positions, where he said the need for change is

* Italicising throughout this report is that of the report writer.

felt most, he observed, "because administration has become increasingly complex in a modern state, administrative leadership today demands much more than ordinary human qualities ; the administrator in higher positions must have a wide range of knowledge, a masterful skill in the application of techniques and a more than ordinary insight into human nature and psychology. We do not want panjandrums or martinets but men whose firmness is tempered with sympathy. In the circumstances, therefore, the search for such administrative leadership will have to range very wide, and embrace the whole Civil Service so that the higher administrative positions could be staffed with varied talent and experience. Whether the existing practices of personnel administration and the structural peculiarities of cadres help or hinder the flow of such quality and calibre to higher administrative positions is a matter for you to consider. *The main criterion should, in my judgment, be Merit understood in its true sense ; and therefore it stands to reason that we should cast the net wide for catching the best men for such higher positions, irrespective of where they might be working or serving.* In doing so we have, however, to guard against the play of whims and caprices of those who are in a position to so select and appoint, and a continual effort should be made to devise as objective a method as possible for the assessment of merit and quality".

In the context of the need for change Shri Kamath emphasised the importance of career development. He observed : "If the need for staffing the higher administrative positions with men experienced in various fields is accepted, the consequential changes which become necessary in the personnel management practices will also have to be accepted, *and this will require a new approach to career development. The career development programme which can adequately meet the needs of higher staffing would have to enable the higher personnel to acquire the necessary expertise in given fields*".

Shri Kamath also emphasised the importance of training and observed that "the world is changing fast, knowledge is growing apace, and scientific and technological research is continually forcing changes in our mode of living, the Civil Service can neither be an idle spectator of such kaleidoscopic change nor can the service personnel be insulated

from such an environment. An administrator must keep pace with the latest developments and he should also be able to understand and appreciate the significance of the changing milieu. Training in mid-career is, thus, particularly important for those who have to take major decisions and to formulate policies. The identification of problems providing and utilising all the training facilities in the shape of material, techniques and funds, is a tremendous task but this task cannot be neglected, for *training is good investment and can bring rich dividends in the shape of effective administration.*"

The need for radical change found strongest expression during the discussions on "Staffing Higher Administrative Positions". Shri H.C. Mathur, the Chairman of the two sessions devoted to this subject, felt that more than three fourths of the needed administrative reform would be achieved if only we could have the right type of men in the top places. In this context he mentioned about the proposal being considered by the Fulton Commission in U.K. to merge all "classes" above the level of Assistant Secretaries and man these senior posts with reference only to the qualifications, skill and experience of the individual. This was an important step towards harmonising the contribution of scientists, engineers and other specialists towards top policy-making ; and also towards removing the feeling that non-professional administrators held the monopoly of such senior positions.

We have changed lots of things, Shri Mathur went on to emphasise. But the personnel administration system, which is of vital importance, has not received adequate consideration. Comments have often been made about it—sometimes very critical as in the Plan documents—but all that we have done is some *ad hoc* changes here and there. "*We in the commission*", he said, "*do feel that there is a need for radical change*". This was not meant to cast any reflections on the administration. But circumstances have changed ; situations have changed ; tasks have changed ; challenges before us are entirely different", he added. And personnel administration has to change to meet these changes.

He brought home the point that even in France and U.K. the need for a radical reform in personnel administration has been felt. But we still cling to what we inherited at the

time of Independence.

Shri Mathur also emphasised that a more forceful concept of the civil servant had to be developed and projected—that he is professional, adaptive and creative. The civil servant should be better integrated both with his colleagues performing different functions in his department and with people working in related fields outside his department. Shall we abolish the division between the executive; administrative and the professional classes of civil servants, he asked. Shall we give managerial training, even to those recruited as professionals, at an early stage of their career and give them opportunities and encouragement to move into administrative jobs at appropriate points of their career ?

Shri Mathur also indicated that discussions by the Administrative Reforms Commission, with officers at all levels, had made one thing very clear—that no one was happy, neither the professional nor the administrative classes, with what exists today. Much—very much—is wanting in the existing situation. We have to put our fingers on the right places and find the right answers.

In emphasising the need for change Shri Mathur posed a related question for debate. Should Ministers appoint Personal Advisers to help them in their work ?

There was near unanimity about the need for radical change in the existing system. A senior participant observed that he was surprised—rather bewildered—that even in 1968, over twenty years after Independence, we were still debating the need for change in the present system of manning higher administrative posts. Another senior participant observed that a radical change had already taken place—in this that we had refused to change to take note of the changing environment.

INGREDIENTS OF A SOUND PERSONNEL POLICY— WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO STAFFING HIGHER ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

A Personnel System must have a purpose. The purpose has to be related to the objectives of the organisation. The purpose cannot be the creation and protection of rights and privileges of personnel in various "services" and "cadres"; or abstract uniformity and justice in handling them. The purpose has to be to facilitate fulfilment of the goals of the organisation—in the present case—government. What kinds of men do we want to man the civil service in relation to our goals and tasks? How do we go about getting and developing such men? What do we do to motivate them for better performance? These are amongst issues that were discussed. Several requirements of a good personnel policy in this context were indicated and generally accepted. These are :

- (i) The best man for the job,
- (ii) Increasing professionalism,
- (iii) Competitiveness in selections for higher administrative positions,
- (iv) Placement to be job-oriented and not status-oriented,
- (v) Motivation for better performance,
- (vi) Equal pay for equal work,
- (vii) Objective evaluation of performance,
- (viii) Rational promotion and personnel development system,
- (ix) Selection-out or the weeding out of dead wood.
- (x) Appropriate organisation of functions of government and appropriate policies and practices to enable optimum personnel performance.

The best man for the job

There was unanimity of view that if we have to deliver the goods, we have to get the best man for the job to be done.

For this, the net of selection has to be cast wide. The existing practice based on traditional concepts—which are being given up in the country from which we inherited them—of excessive reliance on formally constituted “Services”—substantially the most “generalist” amongst them—for manning higher administrative positions, must be given up. The system should be capable of enabling the best man to be selected, not only from amongst the formalised “services” or “cadres” as they exist, not only from amongst “generalists” and “specialists”, but also from outside government. Talent existed outside the government also and this needed to be harnessed. The requirements of the job must be the paramount consideration, not the pre-eminence ascribed to any service or seniority within it. But for this to happen, the requirements of the job to be filled have to be known and spelt out. The job content in terms of duties and responsibilities, skills, subject matter and managerial competence and experience has to be spelt out. And the man chosen in relation to these requirements. The efficiency of the personnel system should depend on how well it provides for the job to be done—not how well it provides for the man. The latter is, of course, important but only in subservience to the main objective; not as an end in itself.

Increasing professionalism

The multifarious and complex tasks of government today require civil servants with professional competence in the area which they are to man. The Personnel System should be such as would encourage professionalism in public administration. It is no longer possible to pick a bright young man with a broad liberal education and groom him to occupy eventually positions requiring competence in fields as far apart as manufacture of steel, and the education of people in family planning. A substantive competence in the subject matter handled is an inescapable requisite for effective performance. Our biggest failures could be attributed to a pathetic inadequacy of comprehension of the economic, scientific and technological factors involved in decision-making at higher administrator positions. The result, as Shri N. Dandekar, M.P. put it, is that the maxim of a good civil servant today would seem to be: “If you can, don’t move; if you must, move slowly; if you are pushed, move in circles;

and if cornered, appoint a committee”.

In this context, the question of who should man higher administrative positions: “generalists” or “specialists” was debated. Should “generalists” have the monopoly of access to policy-making positions? Why not “specialists”? Why should “specialists” be relegated to positions of comparative inferiority in the policy-making hierarchy. It is not only a question of access to higher administrative positions. Personnel management at present is heavily loaded against specialisation and so puts the “specialist” in terms of hierarchy, status and remuneration always below the “generalist”. Why must the pre-eminence of the generalist in the Secretariat be maintained? Why should status and remuneration of a position—say that of a Chairman or General Manager of a big public sector project—be always thought of in terms of comparability with that of a Secretary to Government with the latter—till very recently and in exceptional cases—always assigned the pre-eminent position, in terms, even of remuneration. Why must we think of the “status” of a Chief Engineer or an Additional Chief in terms of equivalent generalist secretariate positions?

The “professional” has to be assigned a role commensurate with his function. The question should really not be one of conflict between the “generalists” and the “specialists”. The question is : Can we do without “specialisation” in any area of administration? Don’t we need competent “specialists” even in district administration? Or must district administration continue to be looked upon as a passing phase in a generalist civil servant’s career, to be endured for a year or two only because it is considered to be an indispensable stepping stone for the manning of higher administrative positions? Do we not need a strong specialisation in district administration as such?

What then is the real need for adequate performance of the tasks of government: “Specialisation” and “professionalisation” of the civil servants. The civil servant must specialise in the first 8 to 10 years of his career. A man must be assigned, after recruitment and initial training, to a specific area of administration—district administration being one such area. It is only thereafter that he should begin to move “up” or “out” into related positions, with progressively higher managerial

content, but where his substantive specialisation could be harnessed to effective use. Only those who make the grade, in a tough competitive process, should be groomed for higher administrative positions. The real question, therefore, as posed by Dr. Glenn Stahl, is: how do we go about manufacturing "generalists" from amongst "specialists"—because "specialists" we must have, to begin with? By progressive training in managerial skills; by judicious job-rotation in related fields; by a conscious and deliberate planning of careers.

Competitiveness in selections for higher administrative positions

There was near unanimity that a desirable personnel system should provide for competitiveness throughout a civil servant's career. The value of this for manning higher administrative positions is even greater. Promotions should not be dependent on ascribed status or seniority or belonging to a particular service but should be utterly dependent on professional status acquired as a result of proven competence, supplemented by performance during training programmes aimed at talent development.

A personnel system cannot provide "the best man for the job" if it is dependent on "seniority". The constant need to prove one's self before advancement is given can be a very strong motivation for better performance.

Placement to be job-oriented and not status-oriented

That the requirements of the job to be done should be the paramount consideration in selecting the man to fill that job, was unanimously accepted. Placement practices, therefore, must focus on the job to be done, not the need to provide a job for a person who has been assigned a certain status by virtue of having done a number of years in a particular service or cadre.

Motivation for better performance

A Personnel System must provide adequate motivation to perform better. The best motivation derives from the satisfaction of a job well done. A job is not well done by "round pegs in square holes". So we get back to the paramount need

for matching capabilities and experience with specific requirements of the job to be done.

Even this is not enough. A person who does his job well, must have assurance that good performance has its rewards and inadequate performance its liabilities. He should know that future advancement to higher positions will be dependent on proven competence and performance, not on seniority or belonging to a particular "service" or "cadre".

Equal pay for equal work

Lack of this in the present system is a major source of frustration. The pay structure is heavily loaded in favour of "generalist". Why should posts in the Secretariat be occupied predominantly by generalists—generally at higher remuneration? And why is the pre-eminence, even in the Secretariat seemingly acquired by "rank" in a competitive examination on first entry, sought to be maintained throughout a man's career? There exists a rule, even today, that no officer, when he comes to the Secretariat, can draw a salary higher than that drawn by an IAS Officer who took the competitive examination, years back, in the same year. This rule has reduced the emoluments to which officers of other services would normally have been entitled on arrival in the Secretariat. But the pre-eminence of a "rank" in the entry examination is secured, by this rule, only for the IAS. Why not for others?

Deputy Secretaries belonging to different services draw different scales of pay. Why, if the job to be done is the same or similar?

But "equal work" again implies an evaluation of the job to be done in terms of duties, responsibilities and skill requirements. Only then can a rational system be devised to carry conviction that the principle is followed in practice and not merely in theory.

Objective evaluation of performance

If performance is to be the main criterion for reward and advancement, how do we pick out the good performers? There has to be a method for evaluating performance as objectively as is practical in the conduct of human affairs. The present method of evaluating performance on Character Rolls

is so inadequate as to impair confidence. Often the situation is aggravated by advancement of those with not-too-good Character Rolls. An objective technique of evaluation of performance has to be devised. There will always be some subjectivity in evaluating a man's performance ; but this subjectivity could be considerably reduced. In any useful evaluation the opinion of the immediate supervisor must be recorded and given special weight.

Rational promotion and personnel development system

Promotion policy must be rational and should focus on the requirements of the job, not seniority or the fact of belonging to a particular service. Today promotion to higher administrative posts is nearly limited to seniority in a particular service. If the post of a Joint Secretary where petroleum policy is being handled falls vacant, it is filled by almost anyone who happens to be available at that time, with the required seniority; his earlier assignment may have had nothing to do with petroleum and may have been as far removed from it as Panchayati Raj or Cooperation. It is the eligibility of the man for a senior administrative position that is the main consideration ; not the specific requirements of the particular post. What happens inevitably ? It is the job that suffers. The braver amongst the civil servants manage to acquire a hang of the subject matter over a number of years. It is almost as if Government dreads the acquisition of expertise by its civil servants, that as soon as an officer in a senior post has acquired adequate working knowledge of his assignment, he is transferred to a completely different position in the Secretariat itself or in his "parent cadre".

This brought up the question of career development. The existing personnel system hardly pays any attention to this. Careers have to be carefully planned. Talent has to be spotted early and nurtured through training and judicious job rotation within related functional areas of administration and progressively greater managerial skills imparted. A rational promotion policy and career development go together.

The selection-out or the weeding out of dead wood

The need to provide for the survival of only the fittest

in public service was also emphasised. Dead wood must be weeded out to maintain the virility of the civil service. In this context the practice of selection-out obtaining in the Defence services was highly commended. Civil servants should be provided an opportunity to make the grade for advancement by training, etc. Those who cannot be promoted beyond a certain stage must be weeded out. Even those who are promoted to the upper echelons of higher administrative positions should hold those positions on a tenure basis and only such of those retained after the tenure as have been able to repay, by actual performance, the confidence reposed in them. Others must be weeded out.

To facilitate weeding out, the present "golden chains" must be broken. Pension and other retirement benefits must be so modified as to enable the persons, who are weeded out, or who prefer to go out on their own, to draw proportionate retirement benefits and not forfeit them entirely as at present. It is not as if this will immediately result in a complete disarray with people going out of government for possibly more lucrative assignments outside. The urge to do so may seem great but outside jobs are scarce. The existence of such a facility for movement-out, will be a good morale booster. And it should also facilitate movement-in.

In this context, a suggestion was made to de-link "pay" from "position" so that the two are not looked upon as an indivisible package. The man at the top must be the best available irrespective of his seniority. Should a comparatively junior man be the best so selected, why not give him the position but not the pay? Let others who have been "super-seded" but whose performance is still "satisfactory", get the pay instead. You then have an outstanding man where he is needed most and you mitigate rivalries and frustration by de-linking the occupation of the post from the higher pay it carries. The outstanding man will still derive immense satisfaction from holding the higher position even if it be without the higher pay. This will have the added advantage that if on actual performance, the outstanding man is found wanting, his reversion would not create complications arising from reduction in pay, etc.

Appropriate organisation of functions of government and appropriate policies and practices to enable optimum personnel performance

The Personnel System is a part of a total system of administration. Other parts must match appropriately. The organisation and structuring of the functions of the Government has a bearing on the Personnel System. How do we structure our machinery of government? Must we maintain the present structure of the Secretariat and its relationship with the executive agencies of government? Should we organise government by function or by programme? And what about the organisation of Finance and Budget functions, policies and procedures? These questions have a vital bearing on the Personnel System if it is geared to performance of the individual on a job.

A suggestion was made that the size of the Secretariat be considerably reduced to provide for a small but strong policy cell for ministers. This would completely alter the personnel structure and the personnel practices at present adopted. The executive agencies would need to be considerably strengthened, in terms of competence and status of personnel.

The role of Personal Advisers to the Ministers was debated in this context. Ministers, it was stated, felt the need of Personal Advisers in day-to-day policy-making. Some favoured the appointment of such Personal Advisers, but were apprehensive of the relationship between such advisers and the Secretary who must carry the responsibility. Others favoured a Brains Trust of leading professionals and specialists for the Government as a whole. A third suggestion was to constitute a small policy group to assist the Ministers in day-to-day policy-making. This group could consist of the Secretary, the "specialist" head(s) of concerned executive agency(ies) and appropriate "experts" from outside Government.

Another organisational issue relates to the location of the Personnel function itself. Even though in theory, all higher administrative positions were open to all services—"generalists" as well as "specialists"—in practice the pre-eminence of the most generalist of the services was always maintained. The

location of the personnel function in the Ministry of Home Affairs, which is the cadre controlling authority for only the IAS and the CSS, as also the manning of the key post of the Establishment Officer by ICS/IAS officers, may have been a major contributory factor.

For a meaningful evaluation of jobs spread over the entire Government, a placement policy based on "the best man for the job", a specification of standards for the grading of jobs, a career development approach, etc., in short for meaningful Personnel Administration, it is essential to have a strong Central Personnel Agency. There was near unanimity on this—that a strong professionally competent Central Personnel Management Agency be established, outside of any particular Department or Ministry, directly reporting to the Cabinet and, therefore, located either directly under the Prime Minister or the Cabinet Secretariat. As an interim measure, till such time as such a Personnel Management Agency is established, there was general support for the proposal that the post of the Establishment Officer should be rotated, on a fixed tenure basis, between an IAS officer and a non-IAS officer.

DOES THE EXISTING SYSTEM PROVIDE THIS ? WHAT MAY BE DONE TO MAKE THE EXISTING SYSTEM BETTER ?

The general consensus of the Conference was that the existing Personnel System did not meet with these requirements of a desirable Personnel Administration System. The existing system leaned too heavily on cadreisation which is very much a reflection of our caste and hierarchy ridden society, in which function is treated as a matter which rests much more on power and authority than on objectives and participation. Our elite is more "status-oriented" rather than "achievement-oriented". The cadre-system's sanction is based on the criteria of an out-dated selection system by means of purely academic examination. Not only is this system out-dated in the industrial management world but also in the administrative world, in advanced countries. But in India, we have long held that a place on an examination list, 5 or 25 years ago, establishes a fixed merit rating for an entire working life.

The existing system had to be changed, and changed radically.

Substantive changes : involving structure of service/cadres

There was consensus in favour of the following changes :
For manning higher administrative position, selection should be made from all "services"—"generalist" as well as "specialist".

The selection system should not be a closed system ; it should permit of lateral entry from outside Government. Persons filling these posts should have subject-matter competence as well as managerial skills and experience, therefore, a fresh look at the entire system of recruitment and training will have to be given.

To promote specialisation, recruits to the present Class I

and All-India Services should spend the first 8-10 years of their career in a specific area of administration; for the IAS the field of "specialisation" will be District Administration.

After this initial period of "specialisation", people should be groomed for assuming administrative-managerial responsibilities; they should be put through "refresher" and "managerial development" training courses.

The selection for higher administrative positions should take place at this stage from amongst civil servants in the different areas of administration—"generalist" (actually there will be no such person in the revised system) as well as "specialist"; the selection will need to be made by some appropriately designed competitive process which would test the managerial development potential as well as take note of past performance on the job(s).

To facilitate initial allotment to the various areas of administration, and later to ensure that eligibility for selection to higher administrative positions is not linked, as at present, with having attained a certain hierarchical pay, or seniority position in the present cadre, the pay and promotion prospects should be the same for all the Central and All-India Services, subject, of course, to comparability being ascertained through analysis of duties and responsibilities. Some co-relation between the revised pay scales and departmental hierarchies, where they exist, will need to be established.

For proper assignment of duties and responsibilities and ensuring rational comparability of emoluments, a scientific job analysis and evaluation should be undertaken.

How to bring about these changes in the existing system was then debated. 'A proposal for the constitution of a unified civil service covering the present Central and All-India Services, was strongly supported.' This, it was argued, would do away with all the inter-service jealousies arising from present inequalities of pay and advancement prospects, promote a healthy *esprit de corps* and facilitate the incorporation of all the desired changes in the Personnel System. Some details of the scheme of the Unified Civil Service were also spelt out. Initial recruitment could be common; initial training could be common;

thereafter the recruits should be assigned to specific areas of administration—functional, programmatic or territorial. This assignment to—what may, for the sake of convenience, be called—“functional pools” could be made on the basis of personal choices supplemented by aptitude testing, etc. The areas of administration for which specific “functional pools” could be constituted are : agricultural administration, financial administration, industrial administration, economic administration, educational administration, social welfare administration, etc. District Administration, as such, will be one of them. After the initial assignment to such a “functional pool”, the recruits would undergo training in the specific subject-matter. The recruits could remain in one “functional pool” for a certain period, say 8-10 years (or slightly more). Pay grades in these functional pools will be the same both at the entry level and at hierarchical levels in the organisation of initial allotment at least up to the level of the Head of the Department. This initial period of 8-10 years in a specific field of administration would make for the acquisition of the needed subject-matter competence. It is from amongst these various “functional pools” that persons would be selected to man higher administrative posts. There could thus be a “policy and managerial pool”. Selections to this “pool” would be highly competitive, based on adequately devised testing techniques. The initial selection to this “pool” would not confer any irretrievable benefits for the rest of a person’s career. Such persons would have to go through a specifically designed training programme to equip them for higher administrative/managerial responsibilities. They would have to pass another test on conclusion of this special training. Only such, as make an adequate grade, would be retained in the “policy and managerial pool”. Manning of higher administrative positions could be done from amongst this pool, care being taken to see that in actual placement the broad areas of initial specialisation are made use. “Specialisation” will still need to be the key-note of management of this “pool”. But these persons will be judiciously rotated between related fields so as to infuse them with a progressively greater degree of “generalism” in the approach to policy issues at higher levels.

Those left behind in the initial selection to this “pool”

will continue in their own functional area and be eligible for advancement in their own departmental hierarchies. There will need to be a District Administration hierarchy also. But even amongst such "left-overs", there will be room for selection into the "policy and managerial pool" for "late bloomers" after they have done say about 18-20 years of service. Room for lateral entry from "outside" will be an indispensable feature of the Unified Civil Service.

Furthermore, there may be two compartments of the Unified Civil Service to facilitate initial recruitment—one for the presently constituted "generalist" services (All-India and Central) for which no professional educational qualification is at present prescribed and the other for the scientific, technical and professional personnel.

Naturally there were views "for" and "against" the Unified Civil Service structure. Those "for" stated :

This was the only way to promote commitment to public service in a collaborative spirit without the inter-service jealousies and resultant frustrations arising from the present "service" or "cadre" structure.

This was a good way of ensuring an egalitarian approach to personnel management.

This was the only way of ensuring equality of opportunities for advancement into higher administrative positions.

Those "against" stated :

There are dangers and difficulties in pulling down an existing structure and beginning afresh. The shifting political structure in the country, has already created strains on the federal set-up. The need for national integration indicates a heavier reliance on the integrative aspect of All-India Services. Any fundamental structural change contingent on acceptance of State Governments should be avoided if operating realities are desired to be achieved soon. Why not adapt the existing system to the extent possible to provide the desirable changes in the present system of personnel management without major structural changes.

In a unified service of this type, with pay and prospects completely equated, it would be difficult to attract recruits to the "pool" meant for District Administration ; in the

end poor quality recruits would enter this "pool". This would be bad for District Administration which is still the pivot of administration in the country. It needed to be considerably strengthened. The IAS should be reoriented towards administering the districts in the States; and it should be made attractive enough, in view of the difficult nature of the job in the districts. Equalisation of pay-scale for various services (or whatever we may call them) should not be made on a prior considerations. It should proceed on a proper system of position classification; and pay-scales equated only for positions of comparable responsibilities and duties. If this was done and the All-India character of some of the existing services was retained, there is everything to be said for a Unified Civil Service.

District experience is a vital factor, it is there that a civil servant comes into live contact with the people and the realities of life in rural India.

Any fundamental change in the existing structure of "services" and "cadres" may involve litigation on a large scale.

It was all right to open up advancement to higher administrative positions to "specialists". But what about the need to make the best use of "specialists" who are, after all, a very scarce resource? Should their expertise not be made full use of in protecting them against undue incursion into their time by administrative responsibilities.

And where, in the higher administrative positions in the Secretariat would "specialists" be fitted? Should an engineer be in charge of "policy" relating to his specific area of expertise? Would not excessive leanings of the "specialists" towards their own speciality detract from the value of their advice on matters of broader policies?

Those "for" the Unified Civil Service had this to say in answer to those "against".

If district administration is so arduous that it will not attract good recruits if pay and prospects are equalised in the Unified Civil Service, let the differences in duties and responsibilities be brought out by a scientific job analysis,

should this indicate higher level of responsibility for the district job, surely the scale of remuneration could be made higher. But does this alone vitiate the concept of a Unified Civil Service? Does everyone have to be assigned to the lowest grade in the Unified Civil Service? Furthermore if the arduous character of the work in the district should warrant a higher initial scale of pay should not the recruits to "District Administration" stay in that area of administration long enough to have merited the initial higher classification? And does the fact of arduous work in the district, assure for district administrations, a pre-eminence for access to higher administrative posts? Good district experience and performance may be relevant for a posting in a more important district; but how does it confer such versatile capabilities as to enable district administrators to man any post in the higher echelons of administration from steel, to loops, to export, to fiscal policy? To get the maximum out of higher remuneration for arduous district work, the better amongst the district administrator should have to stay on in District Administration and look up for hierarchical promotion to the position of Divisional Commissioners.

The case for the concept of a Unified Civil Service is based on doing away with artificial barriers, deliberately preserved, to maintain the monopoly of the IAS for higher administrative positions; the existing structure of services is heavily loaded in favour of preservation of this system. An IAS officer is in a long time scale which takes him on to Rs. 1800 irrespective of the position he may occupy; and, depending on his seniority in his State cadre, to a selection grade which takes him up to Rs. 2000, once again irrespective of the post he occupies. His first promotion post is that of the Divisional Commissioner in the super-time scale of Rs. 2500—2750; this is the same as that of a Joint Secretary in the Union Government. And, this is where the catch comes. An IAS officer is automatically eligible for promotion to the post of a Joint Secretary as soon as he has done a number of years of service, irrespective of whether he is senior enough in his State cadre to get the post of a Commissioner. The

argument is, that as long as he is senior enough, he is eligible to hold the post of Joint Secretary because the scale of pay of a Joint Secretary, viz., Rs. 2500—2750, is the next in line of his promotion. Now let us see what happens to a non-IAS officer say a postal man. He is not in any long scale of pay which takes him to a level where the next scale in his line of promotion is that of a Joint Secretary. His scale of pay is linked, throughout his stay in his parent department, with the position he occupies. He goes up to Rs. 1250 as Senior Postal Superintendent; then earns promotion as Director in the scale of Rs. 1300—1600; and finally as P.M.G. in Rs. 1800—2250. Note that the PMG—the Head of the Department gets a scale of pay (Rs. 1800—2250) lower than that of the Divisional Commissioner (Rs. 2500—2750). And here is the second catch. No officer of the Postal Service would be considered even eligible for the post of a Joint Secretary until he has reached the position of a PMG; because at any time before that, a promotion to a Joint Secretary's position, would be considered "excessive" irrespective of the man's merit and potentialities. But not so far the IAS man since his initial scale of pay carries him to Rs. 2000 and the Divisional Commissioner's position; the next in his own line of promotion, carries the same scale of pay as that of a Joint Secretary. What, if on proper job evaluation, the post of Divisional Commissioner were to be placed in a scale of, say Rs. 2000—2250? That might alter the story somewhat, as current arguments go. But some more would be devised to retain the pre-eminence of the IAS. The basic question that is to be faced is this: are we going to retain this pre-eminence? Since the answer is "No", then care has to be taken to see that the revised structures of "services" or "cadres" are so designed as to prevent this pre-eminence of one service being maintained, by means direct or indirect. The point that is sought to be made in favour of the Unified Civil Service is that, to take the same example as that of a Postal Officer, had his initial scale of pay been as long as that of an IAS officer and the scale of pay of the post of a PMG the same as that of a Divisional

Commissioner (it may well be higher if a scientific job evaluations were done), the postal officer would also be considered at least eligible for the post of a Joint Secretary, even before he reaches the position of a PMG in the Postal Department. Jealousies and frustrations arise because the postal man, or the income-tax man, or the railway man, never gets to the position of the Head of Department till after he has done more than 20 years of service, and often many more. And only such of them as actually reach that position are considered eligible for selection while in the IAS all are eligible. So a Unified Civil Service will remove all these inhibitory factors which at present prevent even the consideration of the talented in other services at the time of selection for higher administrative positions. Of course the long equated scales of pay will need to be linked appropriately (and this should present no difficulty at all) with hierarchical positions within the departments.

District experience is, of course, important ; that is why it should be built up properly by constituting a "pool" of District administrators. But which are the higher administrative positions in which the district experience is indispensable ? Where it is relevant it can certainly be taken note of in planning the placement and career development of the "policy and managerial pool". And a point to consider is : What about the district exposure of other civil servants, *e.g.*, the postal man, the engineers, the agricultural expert ? Are they not exposed to the realities of rural Indian life ? And why not consider picking up the District Coordinator from amongst the various District functionaries—the Agriculture man, the engineer, etc. ?

Once the purpose to be achieved in a Unified Civil Service is accepted, difficulties in giving the concept a tangible structural shape can be mitigated substantially by devising ways and means of retaining the concept of the Unified Civil Service with as little of constitutional/legal amendments in the existing structure of services as practicable.

Concern for the conservation of scarce "specialist"

manpower resources is all right but must this result in their being relegated to positions of comparative inferiority in terms of status and remuneration.

The general consensus, that emerged, was : whatever the name or structural framework, the basic ingredients of equality of pay-scales and advancement prospects to higher administrative positions, for specialists and generalists alike and lateral entry for outside experts as well as for "late bloomers", should be secured.

Organisational changes

It was recognised that the organisation of functions of Government and in that context the size and character of the Secretariat would have an important inter-action with Personnel Policy and Management. No consensus was, however, discernable ; the subject did not secure adequate consideration perhaps because an A.R.C. Study Team has already examined this and finalised its report.

There was consensus on the need for associating advisers of proven professional competence in policy formulation. The organisational arrangement by which this could be best secured was left to be considered.

There was near unanimous support to the proposal that a strong professionally competent Central Personnel Agency be established under the Prime Minister or the Cabinet Secretariat. In the interim, the post of Establishment Officer should rotate between an IAS and non-IAS officer.

WHAT ABOUT POSITION CLASSIFICATION?

In the context of the need for a radical change in the existing system of personnel administration, the concepts and techniques of Position Classification as a tool of personnel management, were debated.

Shri V.V. Chari, the Chairman of this session, opened the discussions by sketching, very briefly, the main aspects of the concept of Position Classification. He brought out the fundamental differences as well as some similarities between the "rank-in-man" and "rank-in-job" approaches in the field of personnel administration. He called upon the Conference to decide how far this concept could be applied to Indian conditions and invited Dr. Glenn Stahl to give his exposition of the concepts and techniques of Position Classification as a tool of personnel administration.

Dr. Glenn Stahl began with a presentation of the essential ingredients of Position Classification as practised in U.S.A. and Canada. A synopsis of his presentation appears in Annexure VI.

Position Classification is a method of organising assignments for the management of personnel affairs. It focuses on the demands of the job—duties, responsibilities and needed skills. It is based on job analysis and evaluation. It identifies what work is really performed, matches skills of people with skills needed in the job, and provides the basis for a rational pay policy relating to the degree of contribution of the worker.

The techniques of Position Classification are : description of jobs, development of standards, classification of positions *in line* with these standards, continuous adjustment to take note of changing situations.

The typical criteria for evaluation of jobs are : nature of occupational field, complexity and difficulty of duties, magnitude or scope of responsibility, knowledge or skill needed (and what it takes to acquire it) and impact/consequence of action/decision.

The key difference between rank-in-job or the position concept and rank-in-man or the service concept is the degree to which the nature of a current assignment is the major controlling factor in setting the individual worker's pay, determining promotion and his career prospects, providing a base for appraisal of his performance, serving as a mark of prestige and capitalising on his specialised skills.

The backbone of the Position Classification System is a "Class Series"—a group of occupational classes of positions, similar in the nature of work and skill but differing in terms of the degree of responsibilities and duties indicating the normal promotional ladder.

In the discussions that followed there was again a remarkable degree of general consensus that :

the requirements of the job and the knowledge and skill of the person filling that job should be adequately matched ;

for this purpose, the specific requirement of jobs should be clearly spelt out in terms of duties, responsibilities, experience, education, training and skill requirements, etc.; the fixation of responsibility be clear and specific ;

posts carrying substantially equal responsibilities and duties should be equally remunerated ;

promotion prospects to a higher position should be available to all possessing the needed skill, experience, etc. and should not be restricted by virtue of entry into any particular "class" or "service";

promotion should be based on performance rather than on seniority ;

as near objective criteria of evaluation of performance should be designed as is practicable ;

training should be closely related both to specific job requirements and the need for career planning and development of employees.

While there was consensus on the need for a personnel system to incorporate all these desirable ingredients different viewpoints were expressed on the question whether the existing system based, essentially on rank-in-man, should be replaced by Position Classification, based on rank-in-job.

A strong view—though by a very small minority—was

put forth that, in theoretical essence, the existing system did incorporate all the ingredients of a Position Classification approach. It was only the way in which the system was actually operated that deficiencies arose. After all, the requirements of the job have to be kept uppermost ; the skills of persons filling those jobs have to be matched with the needed requirements ; promotions need not be made on the basis of seniority ; performance on the job should matter ; higher administrative positions are open to all or could be made more open ; specialisation already exists—no one recruits a doctor to fill a post which requires engineering expertise ; and with a little adaptation here and there the concept of “services” and “cadres” would meet with all the desirable requirements of a Position Classification approach.

An equally strong viewpoint was put forth by many that Position Classification was an excellent tool for rational personnel management ; that the basic concepts of Position Classification and those of the existing system based on “services” and “cadres”, were in conflict ; and the Position Classification needs to be introduced as a basis for personnel administration in our country.

It was interesting to note that the strongest supporters of the existing system were amongst the younger—albeit a very small minority of IAS officers—while almost all the non-IAS officers and most academics were amongst the strongest supporters of radical change. The senior amongst the IAS/ICS were generally in favour of change.

The implications of Position Classification, particularly on the existing concept and management of “service” and “cadres” provoked lively debate, carried over into informal discussions with Dr. Stahl. Can't the gap between the two approaches be narrowed if not removed altogether ? After all, the “class series”, was the backbone of Position Classification. Was this not an embryo for the concept of a service, at least the large majority of the presently constituted services ? The very idea of constituting a service arises, it was observed, only after a sufficiently large number of similar occupations needing broadly the same or similar skills, required to be filled up and when the size of the organisation(s) where such occupations exist provides an adequate hierarchical base for carving out a

service career. And, taking note of recent trends, if the "class series" were sufficiently enlarged to combine many related occupational categories, could not the conceptual conflict between the two—the "class series" and the "service"—be considerably mitigated? "No", argued the staunch supporters of Position Classification. The basic conflict would still remain. The one would still focus on the job to be done, here and now, and the other on the man—his rank and status by virtue of his position in a "service". The essential differences between the two are brought out in the comparative statement (pp. 31-34).

But, argued the ardent supporters of the existing system, most of the advantages of the rank-in-job approach could be secured by appropriate adaptations in the existing system so that specialisation, work-centered motivation, performance on the job, remuneration related to duties and responsibilities, etc., could be secured. But then why cling to the concept of the "corps" argued the supporters of Position Classification; in reconciling the concept of a "corps" with the concept of rank-in-job, have we not shorn the "corps" concept of all its characteristics?

However, some amongst those who favoured the concepts and techniques of Position Classification cautioned against a total switch-over because:

immense difficulties would arise when applying the techniques of job evaluation at lower levels, particularly in public sector enterprises, and these would be aggravated by trade union rivalries;

the additional costs involved in a rational adoption of "equal pay for equal work" in all spheres of Government—Union, State and Local would be heavy;

the effort involved in a total coverage of job evaluation would be colossal.

There was general consensus, however, that, to begin with, a full-fledged job evaluation be undertaken of all positions presently occupied by the All-India and Central Class I services. This, it was felt, would also facilitate the process, generally favoured of equalisation of pay scales and advancement opportunities in all services and cadres.

<i>Desirable Ingredients</i>	<i>Service: Rank-in-man concept</i>	<i>Class Series : Rank-in-job concept</i>
1. Rational grouping	A service is a group of <i>persons</i> .	But a class series is a group of <i>jobs</i> .
2. Career	Attracts promising people for a career, better. Necessary for all allegiance to a total service rather than a specific job or unit.	Careers are equally possible by suitable placement and judicious job-rotation.
3. Motivation	Work-centered motivation is the best, the most durable and the most energising. But the service system does not provide this since a man's career inheres in a total service rather than on a particular job at any time. Where an individual attitudes towards a particular assignment from the outset is that this will be a transitory matter or that sooner or later he will be transferred out of this assignment, he may not "warm up" to the specific	Performance, here and now on a particular job is the most critical factor relating to his future. It is not susceptible to being modified or adulterated by a definite prospect of its termination or by balancing out with successes and failures in past or future assignment. Today a performance becomes a "make or break" critical factor.

<i>Desirable Ingredients</i>	<i>Service: Rank-in-man concept</i>	<i>Class Series : Rank-in-job concept</i>
4. Evaluation of performance	<p>challenges of the assignment in the same manner in which he does when he takes an assignment under the rank-in-job system.</p> <p>The individual's career is based on periodic examination of appraisals by various individuals on various jobs. His "promotion" depends on some kind of general review of these appraisals. This general overall evaluation processes, in the last analysis, must be highly subjective.</p>	<p>A more objective evaluation is facilitated since it is related to performance on a particular job.</p>
5. Mobility	<p>Provides high degree of mobility.</p>	<p>But mobility in the service system is haphazard and unrelated to career development. Mobility in the rank-in-job system can be and must be planned or specifically facilitated by judicious rotation on related jobs.</p>

<i>Desirable Ingredients</i>	<i>Service: Rank-in-man concept</i>	<i>Class Series : Rank-in-job concept</i>
6. Pay flexibility	Greater	Can be rigid or flexible depending on system/design.
7. Specialisation	Reflects the culture of a rapidly disappearing world—one in which things administrative and many things professional could be accomplished by the “generalist”.	Capitalises on specialisation; the genuine virtues of the overall generalist approach can be achieved by adequate doses of training and planned mobility. An individual does not have to be kept on a specific assignment for life in order to take advantage of this interest and aptitudes for a particular specialisation, although there will always be many instances where because of the degree of specialisation such narrow career confines will be unavoidable. Nevertheless, within broad occupational boundaries, sufficient lateral and vertical movement can be generated under a rank-in-job system and still avoiding the “lack-of-attachment-to-job” aspect of the rank-in-man system.

<i>Desirable Ingredients</i>	<i>Service: Rank-in-man concept</i>	<i>Class Series: Rank-in-job concept</i>
8. Link with organisational structure	A service provides a cadre which may or may not fit the organisation(s) which its member may man.	Position Classification staffs job and therefore always fits the organisation.

RATIONAL PAY POLICY

The Conference did not have adequate time to debate the issues posed in the working paper on this subject. Some views were expressed on the disparity between the minimum and the maximum salary in Government.

In his opening address, Shri Hanumanthaiya pointed out "the wide gap between the lowest paid and the highest paid government servants in India". He observed that "in the case of white collar Central Government servants, the ratio of remuneration of the lowest to the highest paid employees today is 1 : 15. On the other hand, this ratio is 1 : 7 in the Federal Civil service in U.S.A. And 1 : 11 in the United Kingdom. There is no gain-saying the fact that this ratio in India needs to be rationalised".

Shri Kamath also touched upon this in his address. He observed: "In the course of my study abroad, in Paris, London, Ottawa, New York and Washington last November, I had the opportunity of discussing this and other problems of administration in those democratic countries. It is surprising—the surprise is tinged with a little sorrow—that the disparity between the minimum and maximum pay in the Civil Services of our country is much wider than, even two to three times as wide as the gap in those countries. I am aware that our national kitty is not bounteous enough for making striking changes in this regard, but there is no reason why you should not suggest measures for appreciably reducing the disparity, whether by levelling up or levelling down or both, so that our pay policy and pay system tend to harmonise more with the norms of a democratic socialist society."

A participant also strongly championed the cause for reduction in the disparity between the highest and the lowest paid in Government service by reducing the highest salary. He even indicated that about 10 times the per capita income in the country would be a fair wage for the highest paid.

But what about the minimum wage ? Was not the disparity between the highest and lowest paid striking because the lowest were not paid adequately ? If the lowest wage was need-based the disparities would stand considerably reduced. But what about the total cost involved in a general upgrading of the minimum wage to make it need-based ? But then what about the true social costs in having a large body of disgruntled under-paid employees handle processes of Government which brought them into constant contact with the public at large at the cutting-edge level of administration ?

IMPORTANCE OF TRAINING IN PERSONNEL UTILIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The crucial importance of training, on entry, mid-career (functional as well as managerial) and later, all along a man's career, for all levels of employees, was greatly emphasised. This is the key factor in improving performance in the face of vastly changing and complex tasks of Government.

Shri V. Shankar, the Chairman of this session, emphasised the crucial importance of continuous training to make a civil servant, a more effective instrument of administration throughout his career. He drew attention to the fact that generalism, as it was understood, is fast fading away, and it is necessary for the civil servant to acquire greater expertise. This brings with it the need for special training to suit particular areas of administrative activity. Training programmes will have to be fashioned to suit the needs as they will arise from time to time and the investment made on training will pay rich dividends in greater effectiveness of administration.

There was general consensus that training for lower employees was as vital in toning up administrative performance as it was for higher levels. It was at this level—the cutting-edge level—where most “doing” tasks are performed and where administration touches the people more directly, that performance need to be considerably improved. The existing resource allocation for training needs to be enhanced considerably and appropriate institutional/on-the-job training programmes devised.

The link between career development and training was clearly brought out by a participant who described how large business organisations used training programmes to develop talent available in different sectors of activity. They have found, by empirical means, that there are mainly three stages of management career. In the earlier years the emphasis is on technical skills, those of production, research, engineering,

accounting and finance, marketing and operational research, or any other. At this stage, good qualifications, an open mind, and a strong character are looked for ; in other words, a combination of qualifications and qualities. At middle levels when responsibility grows in charge of departments and units in large organisations, the emphasis is on the development of human and organisational skills. In the third or advanced stage of careers the emphasis is on conceptual skills. These relate not only to capacity to conceptualise the internal problems of an organisation, but also to deal with the environmental problems, in an industry, with Government, and with public at large. Through this process, some of the earlier specialists in a complex modern life graduate to generalists at the top levels, and by this time they are a happy combination of specialists and generalists. Selections for the top positions are made in the years between, say, 30 and 40, not just on the basis of the earlier qualifications or seniority, but on the qualities required in higher management in the area of organisational and conceptual skills. In this process, Managers do not merely ascend a single departmental ladder, *e.g.*, in Accounts and Finance or Marketing and Operational Research. There is a great deal of inter-changeability horizontally and diagonally. For example, a bio-chemist in research can become a Factory Manager, or an Economist can head a Marketing Division, or a Factory Manager can become the head of Personnel or a Chartered Accountant, the Chairman of the Board of Directors. In these ways the specialist/generalist problem has been largely overcome and made obsolete.

Training needs for higher civil servants were discussed at greater length. Improving the capabilities at middle levels in the career, through well-designed training, is the most crucial need. It is this level which constitutes the backbone of administration. And here subject-matter competence is not the only competence that has to be nurtured. What about the capacity to organise group effort, to set methods of work, to supervise, to delegate, to exercise delegated authority, to analyse a problem, to seek alternative solutions, to take speedy decisions, etc. Administration today is a complex affair, and awareness of the tools and techniques devised to improve administrative performance is essential. Administrative capabilities

have to be developed ; they do not come by naturally.

There is need to improve the quality of initial training given on entry into civil service. In this context the present foundational course at the National Academy of Administration at Mussoorie came up for review. It was recognised that there is need for change in the orientation and duration of this training. Recruits who went to the National Academy came from a troubled world in the Universities. It is essential to mould the attitude of such recruits appropriately before they are let loose in an equally troubled administrative world.

There was a broad degree of consensus that:

The duration of the foundational course at the National Academy should be enlarged; a brief period of institutional training should be followed by job exposure in the field and the recruits brought back for another period at the Academy for institutional training.

A greater awareness of the realities of Indian life is essential, to "generalists" and "specialists" alike. The foundational course could be common for all and even recruits to technical and professional services given a brief exposure to the realities of rural Indian life.

Mid-career training was crucial for all—"specialists" and "generalists" alike. The content of mid-career training programmes should encompass not only refresher functional training to tone up subject-matter competence but also general management training.

General management development training should include techniques of administration, O & M, decision-making, supervision, etc.

Mid-career training should be given to all, not only to those selected for manning higher administrative positions; those that are left behind in their own functional areas of administration also need training for better performance.

For those selected to man higher administrative position a special executive development programme will have to be designed.

Refresher courses should be organised, even later, in a civil servant's life as the rate of obsolescence in the modern world is high.

In the development of training programmes, Government

and academic institutions will both have to play a collaborative role; some training programmes may best be organised departmentally within Government and some would need to be organised in academic institutes.

The training of trainers was also vital; a two-way traffic between academics and practising administrators should be encouraged as it would enrich both.

Training had to be taken up as a serious business all through a man's career and not merely as an occasional orientation. And Government could make its concern with training more explicit by rewarding those who successfully complete mid-career training programmes; furthermore, it could ensure that higher administrative positions are not filled except by those who have gone through mid-career training programmes.

And lastly about teaching methods. The use of the case-method for middle and senior executive development programme was greatly emphasised.

The Conference also took note of the fact that the IIPA had already made a start on Executive Development Programmes in collaboration with the Union Government. The intensification of the IIPA Case Study Programme to produce a large enough number of diagnostic Case Studies for meaningful use in training, was also taken note of.

EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

The Conference did not have adequate time to take up the major issues posed in the Working Paper on the subject. Many viewpoints were presented. No consensus was, however, reached.

Shri D.B. Mookerjee, Chairman of this session, deplored the increasing lack of human approach in administrative dealings and the growing estrangement of the administrator from the administered. Administrative machinery is only a means to an end, the end being the well-being of the common man. Whatever rules and regulations are established, the basic requirement is to instill in the hearts and minds of the administrator that success or failure ultimately depends on how the common man reacts to administration. It is the absence of the human approach which is most responsible for the ills from which we suffer at the moment.

A number of participants urged the shedding of authoritarian attitudes in handling employees. Cooperative and participative attitudes had to be encouraged.

The development of leadership attributes was also emphasised; this would go a long way in improving employer-employee relations.

Job satisfaction may be a good morale booster; but the wherewithal for adequate performance should be provided. Adequate delegation of powers and responsibilities to function effectively should be provided. Good performance should be adequately rewarded and bad performance earn its liability. In theory, provision for accelerated increments was there for good performance but how often was it used in actual practice? The fear of favouritism and nepotism in implementing any scheme of incentives always prevented its practical implementation.

Frustration arising from inequity in pay structure and promotion prospects was a major factor. Rational pay plan based on Position Classification was favoured.

The pre-Independence agitational approach continued in large measure in our administrative set-up. Employees have ceased to believe in the fairness of the administrators.

Fringe benefits and welfare activities were important; but their misuse was rampant and had to be prevented. Such benefits should be larger for lower paid employees.

Delinquency, particularly in the matter of moral and pecuniary integrity had to be dealt with severely. The need for speedy disposal of disciplinary cases was urged. A period of about 2/3 months was generally mentioned.

Shri Banka Bihari Das, M.P. observed that trade union activities needed to be reorganised. Most strains in industrial relations in public sector enterprises arise from the multiplicity of trade unions. He advocated recognition of only one trade union representing the majority of workers. He urged rationalisation of performance evaluation procedures and promotion policies in public sector enterprise.

Prof. Balraj Madhok, M.P. supported the relaxation of present curbs on Government employees' participation in political activity. He advocated the adoption of the British practice of allowing certain categories of Government employees to participate in political activity—even the contesting of elections. If a Government servant was elected, he should be given leave of absence and his lien on the job retained. This was necessary to develop leadership qualities amongst Government employees. Today's political structure had gone down to the grass-roots level and it was necessary to throw open to Government employees participation in legitimate political activity.

Summing up Shri H.V. Kamath made the following observations:

- (i) while rights of employees are important, so are their duties;
- (ii) there should be fixation of responsibility for performance at all levels;
- (iii) there should be promptitude as much in rewarding the meritorious as in awarding punishment to the delinquents.

THINGS TO BE DONE

Some suggestions for things to be done emerged during the Conference. They are :

- examine if other district functionaries cannot take over the district coordination functions ;
- identify the higher administrative positions in which district experience is relevant ;
- examine the feasibility of setting up incentive rewards for good performance in Government ;
- study the reorganised pattern of administration in Pakistan which is stated to lean heavily on decision-makers rather than on decision-helpers ;
- do some more Position Classification feasibility studies in Government organisations ;
- prepare an outline structure for a Unified Civil Service.

CONCLUSION

In his concluding address Shri C.D. Deshmukh observed that we are all moving away from the prevailing generalism towards greater specialisation, particularly at the middle and lower levels of management, in view of the complexity of developmental matters which now prevail in the administrative field. But it might be rash to unify the services, he observed. The path of wisdom, he advocated, was to work for deployment of specialisation in higher or top-ranking administrative positions. This would imply a flexible promotion policy. He expressed himself wholly in favour of the consensus that the best man available, no matter from what source, should be selected to man senior management positions.

He also emphasised the need for undertaking training programmes to equip middle management for senior managerial positions. He was in favour of selectivity being exercised in the matter of eligibility for such training since, in his view, it was not possible to impart such training to all. In this there is room for both : the "specialist" and "generalist". But the training programmes for the two will need to be somewhat different. No management job is entirely an administrative job and yet it is not entirely a specialist job. We have to have more and more "generalists", at home in one of many possible specialities. So the "generalist" will have to be exposed to some developmental specialisation. At the same time, while "specialists" also administer in their own area of administration, for handling higher jobs with a more patent administrative responsibility their training will need to be oriented to making up their lag in administrative skills.

Final selection for higher administrative positions should take place after evaluation of performance during training.

But it would be a grave disadvantage, he cautioned, to have discontented and frustrated people in those who do not make the grade for selection to higher administrative positions.

With appropriate delegations, etc., such middle-level officers should be enabled to exercise as much responsibility as possible and derive job satisfaction ; and there should be some special arrangement to compensate such persons, with not—too stingy wage levels—a kind of tempering the wind to the shorn lamb. This might reduce the sense of frustration of the left-overs and yet permit Government to make the best possible selection for higher positions without any kind of reserve on what is absolutely necessary, namely, the selection of the best man possible for the senior position.

Shri C.D. Deshmukh also emphasised the need for high-level commitment to administrative reform. In actual implementation of the recommendations of the ARC a number of hurdles will arise. And no implementation will be successful unless the Prime Minister, insofar as the Union Government is concerned, assume the moral responsibility for implementation. The details can, of course, be looked after by others but the Prime Minister must accept the overall responsibility for ensuring that whatever is accepted after discussion, is implemented with speed. The Prime Minister will have to rely heavily on the Cabinet Secretary for this. And he will need to be supported loyally and competently by the Secretaries of Ministries and departments. In the States similar responsibilities will have to be carried by the Chief Minister and the Chief Secretary, supported by Department Secretaries.

In the section that follows, the consensus reached in the Conference is re-stated. To repeat, the Conference did not have adequate time to debate the issues posed in the Working Papers on “A Rational Pay Policy” and “Employer-Employee Relations”, some views were expressed, the significant ones among which have been included in the Report. But there was no consensus discernible on any of these issues.

THE CONSENSUS RE-STATED

To sum up, the Conference reached consensus on the following points :

Need for change

There was need for radical change in the existing personnel administration policies and practices.

Desirable ingredients of a Personnel System

A desirable Personnel System should provide for :

- (i) The best man for the job ;
- (ii) Increasing professionalism ;
- (iii) Competitiveness in selections for higher administrative positions ;
- (iv) Placement to be job-oriented and not status-oriented;
- (v) Motivation for better performance ;
- (vi) Equal pay for equal work ;
- (vii) Objective evaluation of performance ;
- (viii) Rational promotion and personnel development system ;
- (ix) Selection-out or the weeding out of dead wood;
- (x) Appropriate organisation of functions of government and appropriate policies and practices to enable optimum personnel performance.

The existing Personnel System is deficient

The existing system does not meet with these requirements. It had to be changed—and changed radically as under :

- (i) For manning higher administrative positions, selections should be made from all “services”—“generalist” as well as “specialist”.
- (ii) The selection system should not be a closed-system ; it should permit of lateral entry from outside Government.

- (iii) Persons filling these posts should have subject-matter competence as well as managerial skills and experience ; therefore a fresh look at the entire system of recruitment and training will have to be given.
- (iv) To promote specialisation, recruits to the present Class I and All-India Services should spend the first 8-10 years of their career in a specific area of administration ; for the IAS, the field of "specialisation" will be District Administration.
- (v) After this initial period of "specialisation", people should be groomed for administrative/managerial responsibilities ; they should be put through "refresher" and "managerial development" training courses.
- (vi) The selection for higher administrative positions should take place at this stage from amongst civil servants in the different areas of administration—"generalist" (actually there will be no such person in the revised system) as well as "specialist"; the selection will need to be made by some appropriately designed competitive process which would test the managerial development potential as well as take note of past performance on the job(s).
- (vii) To facilitate initial allotment to the various areas of administration, and later to ensure that eligibility for selection to higher administrative positions is not linked, as at present, with having attained a certain hierarchical, pay, or seniority position in the present cadre, the pay and promotion prospects should be the same for all the Central and All-India Services, subject, of course, to comparability be ascertained through analysis of duties and responsibilities. Some co-relation between the revised pay scales and departmental hierarchies, where they exist, will need to be established, and can be established without difficulty.
- (viii) For proper assignment of duties and responsibilities and ensuring rational comparability of emoluments, a scientific job analysis and evaluation should be undertaken.

A Unified Civil Service

Whatever the name or structural framework, the concept of a Unified Civil Service is desirable, so that the basic ingredients of equality of pay scale and advancement prospects to higher administrative positions, for specialists and generalists alike, and lateral entry for outside experts as well for "late bloomers" should be secured.

Organisational changes

A strong professionally competent Central Personnel Agency should be established.

This should be placed outside any particular Ministry or Department which controls any of the existing "services". It should be placed directly under the Prime Minister or the Cabinet Secretariat.

In the interim, the post of Establishment Officer should rotate between an IAS and non-IAS officer.

Position Classification

In respect of the concept and techniques of Position Classification, there was a remarkable degree of general consensus that :

- (i) the requirements of the job and the knowledge and skill of the person filling that job should be adequately matched ;
- (ii) for this purpose, the specific requirement of jobs should be clearly spelt out in terms of duties, responsibilities, experience, education, training and skill requirements, etc ;
- (iii) the fixation of responsibility be clear and specific ;
- (iv) posts carrying substantially equal responsibilities and duties should be equally remunerated ;
- (v) promotion prospects to a higher position should be available to all possessing the needed skill, experience, etc., and should not be restricted by virtue of entry into any particular "class" or "service" ;
- (vi) promotion should be based on performance rather than on seniority ;
- (vii) as near objective criteria of evaluation of performance should be designed as is practicable ;

- (viii) training should be closely related both to specific job requirements and the need for career planning and development of employees.

To begin with a full-fledged job-evaluation be undertaken of all positions presently occupied by the All-India and Central (Class I) Services. This, it was felt, would also facilitate the process, generally favoured of equalisation of pay scales and advancement opportunities in all service and cadres.

Training and career development

Training is crucial to equip personnel with subject matter as well as managerial competence. Such training is not mere orientation but a programme of continuous development of people all along their career : on entry, mid-career, and later.

Training for lower employees was as vital in toning up administrative performance as it was for higher levels.

The middle-level constitutes the back-bone of administration. Improving capabilities at this level, through well designed training, is very important. At this level it is not only subject-matter competence that has to be nurtured but managerial/administrative competence also.

Training should be linked with career development.

There is need to improve the quality of initial training given to higher civil servants on entry. They come from a troubled world in the universities. It is essential to mould the attitude of such recruits before they are let loose on a troubled administrative world.

More specifically the following should be done :

- (i) The duration of the foundational course at the National Academy should be enlarged ; a brief period of institutional training should be followed by job exposure in the field and the recruits brought back for another period at the Academy for institutional training.
- (ii) A great awareness of the realities of Indian life is essential ; to "generalists" and "specialists" alike. The foundational course could be common for all and even recruits to technical and professional services given a brief exposure to the realities of rural Indian life.

- (iii) Mid-career training was crucial for all—"specialists" and "generalists" alike. The content of mid-career training programme should encompass not only refresher functional training to tone up subject-matter competence, but also general management training.
- (iv) General management development training should include techniques of administration, O & M, decision-making, supervision, etc.
- (v) Mid-career training should be given to all, not only to those selected for manning higher administrative positions ; those that are left behind in their own functional areas of administration also need training for better performance.
- (vi) For those selected to man higher administrative positions a special executive development programme will have to be designed.
- (vii) Refresher courses should be organised, even later, in a civil servant's life as the rate of obsolescence in the modern world is high.
- (viii) In the development of training programmes, Government and academic institutions will both have to pay a collaborative role ; some training programmes may best be organised departmentally within Government and some would need to be organised in academic institutes.
- (ix) The training of trainers was also vital ; a two way traffic between academics and practising administrators should be encouraged as it would enrich both.

Training had to be taken up as a serious business. Government could make its concern with training more explicit by rewarding those who successfully complete mid-career training ; it could also ensure that higher administrative positions are not filled except by those who have gone through mid-career executive development programmes.

The use of the case method of training for middle and senior executive development programmes was greatly emphasised.

It is necessary to increase, substantially, the existing resource allocation for training. Cost of training may seem large but they are an investment in human resource development—not an expenditure without return.

Annexures

Annexure I

Agenda

March 5—Tuesday

Inauguration of Conference: Welcome address by Dr. J.N. Khosla, Director, IIPA.

The Goals of Administrative Reform—address by Shri K. Hanumanthaiya, Chairman, Administrative Reforms Commission.

Human Factors in Effective Administration—address by Shri H.V. Kamath, Member, A.R.C.

Plan for Conference—statement by Dr. J.N. Khosla.

March 6—Wednesday

Staffing higher administrative positions : issues and major alternatives, (Chairman : Shri H. C. Mathur, Member, A.R.C.) Discussion.

Summary : areas of consensus, matters needing further consideration.

March 7—Thursday

(i) "Position Classification"

(ii) "A Rational Pay Policy"

(Chairman : Shri V. V. Chari, Secretary, A.R.C.)

Discussion.

Discussion on "Position Classification" ; "A Rational Pay Policy"

Summary : areas of consensus, matters needing further consideration.

March 8—Friday

Training and Career Development ; issues and major alternatives (Chairman : Shri V. Shankar, Member, A.R.C.) Discussion.

Summary : areas of consensus, matters needing further consideration.

Employer-employee relations ; report on problems of employee effectiveness, discipline and morale (Chairman : Shri D. B. Mookerjee, Member, A.R.C.).

Discussion.

Summary : areas of consensus, matters needing further consideration.

March 9—Saturday

Concluding session : What we agreed upon and unfinished business—a summary by Dr. J. N. Khosla.

The Implementation of personnel administrative reforms—an address by Shri C. D. Deshmukh, Chairman, Court of Governors, Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad.

Invitees

1. Shri M. D. Ahooja, Deputy Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
2. Shri D.B. Anand, Chairman, Central Water & Power Commission, New Delhi.
3. Shri Anand Mohan Lal, Secretary to Chief Minister, Government of Rajasthan, Jaipur.
4. Shri Ashok Chanda, Formerly Comptroller & Auditor General of India, New Delhi.
5. Prof. Balraj Madhok, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
6. Shri S. Banerji, Joint Secretary to the Prime Minister, Prime Minister's Secretariat, New Delhi.
7. Shri Banka Bihari Das, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
8. Dr. A.P. Barnabas, Reader, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
9. Shri A.B. Bhadkamkar, Joint Secretary, Ministry of External Affairs, New Delhi.
10. Shri Bharat Ram, New Delhi.
11. Shri A. Bhattacharyya, Joint Secretary, Government of Assam, Shillong.
12. Shri K. N. Butani, Project Director, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
13. Dr. K. T. Chandy, Chairman, Food Corporation of India, New Delhi.
14. Shri K. Chandrashekar, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
15. Shri Charat Ram, New Delhi.

16. Shri V. V. Chari, Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
17. Shri N. Chidambaram, Deputy Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
18. Shri N. Dandekar, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
19. Shri S. A. Dange, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
20. Shri A. Datta, Reader, Centre for Training & Research in Municipal Administration, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
21. Shri P. K. Dave, Chief Secretary, Government of Jammu & Kashmir, Jammu.
22. Shri M. Dayal, Senior Member, P. & T. Board, New Delhi.
23. Shri Debabrata Mookerjee, Member, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
24. Shri C.C. Desai, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
25. Shri Devindar Nath, Secretary, Commerce and Industry Department, Government of Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.
26. Shri Dharam Yash Dev, New Delhi.
27. Dr. Douglas Ensminger, Representative in India, Ford Foundation, New Delhi.
28. Shri J.B. D'Souza, General Manager, BEST, Bombay.
29. Shri B.K. Dube, Deputy Secretary, Government of Bihar, Patna.
30. Shri A. K. Dutt, Joint Secretary, Home Department, Government of West Bengal, Calcutta.
31. Mr. Edward A. Kieloch, Consultant in Public Administration, Ford Foundation, New Delhi.
32. Shri R.S. Gae, Secretary, Ministry of Law, Government of India, New Delhi.
33. Shri V. L. Gidwani, Member-Secretary, Finance Commission, New Delhi.
34. Mr. Glenn Stahl (Consultant, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi), Director, Bureau of Policies and Standards, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Washington.
35. Shri A. K. Gopalan, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
36. Shri M. Gopala Menon, Chief Secretary, Government of Kerala, Trivandrum.
37. Dr. S. K. Goyal, Senior Research Associate, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.

38. Shri V. S. Hejmadi, New Delhi.
39. Shri Indarjit Singh, Chairman and Managing Director, Indian Drugs and Pharmaceuticals Ltd., New Delhi.
40. Dr. V. Jagannadham, Professor, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
41. Shri G. Jagathpathi, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
42. Sir Jehangir Ghandy, Tata Iron & Steel Co., Jamshedpur, Bihar.
43. Dr. Jitendra Singh, Member, Directing Staff, Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad.
44. Shri D. S. Joshi, Cabinet Secretary, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi.
45. Shri Kailash Prakash, Director (Admn.), Central Public Works Department, New Delhi.
46. Shri P. K. Kathpalia, Deputy Secretary, Department of Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
47. Shri G.C. Katoch, Joint Secretary, Department of Expenditure, Ministry of Finance, New Delhi.
48. Shri P.K. Kaul, Director, Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, New Delhi.
49. Shri R.S. Khandelkar, Member of Parliament, 121 South Avenue, New Delhi.
50. Shri G. D. Khandelwal, Chairman, Railway Board, New Delhi.
51. Shri A.N. Kidwai, Chief Secretary, Government of Assam, Shillong.
52. Dr. S. L. Kirloskar, Kirloskar Oil Engines Ltd., Kirkee, Poona.
53. Shri D.P. Kohli, Director, Central Bureau of Investigation, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
54. Shri M.M. Kohli, Project Director, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
55. Shri Krishna Deo Tripathi, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
56. Shri C. R. Krishnamurthi, Financial Adviser and Chief Accounts Officer, Hindustan Steel Ltd., Rourkela Steel Plant, Rourkela.

57. Prof. G.R. Kulkarni, Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad.
58. Shri S.B. Kulkarni, Joint Secretary, General Administration Department, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay.
59. Shri V. Kumar, Establishment Officer, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
60. Shri B.B. Lal, Chief Secretary, Government of Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow.
61. Shri J.C. Luther, Director, Department of Steel, Ministry of Steel, Mines & Metals, New Delhi.
62. Dr. S.R. Maheshwari, Chief Research Officer, Department of Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
63. Shri K. Manoharan, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
64. Shri K.D. Mariwalla, Planning Officer, National Industrial Development Corporation Ltd., New Delhi.
65. Shri B.C. Mathur, Officer on Special Duty : Training, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
66. Shri H.C. Mathur, Member, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
67. Prof. M. V. Mathur, Vice-Chancellor, Rajasthan University, Jaipur.
68. Shri B. Mehta, New Delhi.
69. Shri R.L. Mehta, Additional Secretary & Commissioner for Public Grievances, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, New Delhi.
70. Shri K. R. K. Menon, New Delhi.
71. Shri V. P. Mittal, Director, Secretariat Training School, New Delhi.
72. Shri A. D. Moddie, Resident Director, Hindustan Lever, New Delhi.
73. Shri N. K. Mukarji, Joint Secretary, Department of Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
74. Shri S. P. Mukerji, Deputy Secretary, Department of Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
75. Shri G. Mukharji, Director, Centre for Training & Research in Municipal Administration, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.

76. Shri K. N. Nagarkatti, Bangalore.
77. Shri Narasimha Rau, Secretary, Pay Commission, Government of Mysore, Bangalore.
78. Shri K. Narayana Rao, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
79. Shri Nath Pai, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
80. Shri B.S. Narula, Special Assistant to Chairman, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
81. Dr. V.A. Pai Panandiker, Officer on Special Duty, Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, New Delhi.
82. Dr. H.K. Paranjape, Professor, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
83. Shri R. K. Patil, Nagpur.
84. Shri M. G. Pimputkar, Director, National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie.
85. Mr. R. Pollock, Ford Foundation, Consultant, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
86. Shri R. Prasad, Secretary (Services), Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
87. Shri Rajendra Lal, Secretary, Union Public Service Commission, New Delhi.
88. Shri Ram Singh, Special Secretary (Appointments), Government of Rajasthan, Jaipur.
89. Shri F.N. Rana, Chief Secretary, Government of Gujarat, Ahmedabad.
90. Shri S.G.K. Reddy, General Manager (Telephones), New Delhi.
91. Shri M. Ruthnaswamy, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
92. Shri N.G. Sen, Deputy Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
93. Shri A. V. Seshanna, Deputy Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
94. Dr. S.C. Seth, P. S. to Member (Shri V. Shankar, I.C.S.), Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
95. Shri G. P. Shahani, Deputy Secretary, Department of Administrative Reforms, New Delhi.
96. Shri V. Shankar, Member, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.

97. Prof. Shanti Kothari, M.P., Visiting Professor, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
98. Shri Shanti Prasad, Officer on Special Duty : Police, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
99. Shri B. D. Sharma, Deputy Secretary, Administrative Reforms Commission, New Delhi.
100. Smt. Sharda Mukerjee, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
101. Shri Shivappa, Member of Legislative Assembly, Mysore.
102. Kumari K.M. Shyamala, Research Officer, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
103. Shri L.P. Singh, Secretary, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
104. Shri S. V. Sohoni, Chief Secretary, Government of Bihar, Patna.
105. Shri M. L. Sondhi, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
106. Prof. N. Srinivasan, Professor, Indian Institute of public Administration, New Delhi.
107. Shri C. Subramaniam, Madras.
108. Shri K. Sundararajan, Chairman-designate, Board of Direct Taxes, Ministry of Finance, New Delhi.
109. Smt. Tarkeshwari Sinha, Member of Parliament, New Delhi.
110. Shri R. D. Thapar, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.
111. Shri M.J.K. Thavaraj, Reader, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
112. Shri H. R. Trivedi, Project Assistant, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
113. Shri V. Vasudevan, Joint Secretary, Department of Expenditure, Ministry of Finance, New Delhi.
114. Dr. S.P. Verma, Research Associate, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi.
115. Dr. Vikram Sarabhai, Chairman, Atomic Energy Commission, Trombay, Bombay.
116. Mr. William S. Reed, Assistant to the Representative, Ford Foundation, New Delhi.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS

The Goals of Administrative Reforms

K. HANUMANTHAIYA

Friends,

It is indeed a pleasure to have the opportunity to inaugurate this Conference on Personnel Administration which has been organised by the Indian Institute of Public Administration. My association with the Institute is not very old. I came into active contact with it only in December, 1964 as Chairman of the Punjab Administrative Reforms Commission. I found that the work of the Institute in those days was generally of a theoretical nature. It was mostly divorced from the administrative realities. It was perhaps the first time that the Institute took up operational studies on administrative reforms by attaching a research team to the Punjab Administrative Reforms Commission. I am happy to see that the Institute, under the leadership of its Director, Dr. J. N. Khosla, has reoriented its work to concentrate on empirical research and training courses and seminars for administrators of various levels.

The present Conference on Personnel Administration has been organised to discuss some of the crucial reforms in the personnel system and practices in India. I am glad that Shri H. V. Kamath, one of my colleagues, is the Chairman of this Conference. Administrative reforms are in the nature of nation-building and call for a non-partisan approach. I am happy to find that the efforts at reform of administration are being supported by every political party in the country. For the most part there is a general consensus among all the parties about the goals of administrative reforms.

THE OBJECTIVES OF ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS

The basic purposes for administrative reforms as laid down in the terms of reference of the all-India Administrative Reforms Commission are as follows :

First: ensuring the highest standards of efficiency and integrity in the public services;

Second: making public administration a fit instrument for carrying out the social and economic policies of the Government and achieving social and economic goals of development; and

Thirdly: making the administration responsive to the people.

The standard of discipline among the Government employees has gone down considerably in recent years. Strikes by the Government servants are on the increase. Discipline is suffering from its own drought. Indiscipline is taking strange shapes. Some time ago, two groups of employees were fighting in the Writers' Building in Calcutta before the office of the Chief Minister and when he intervened to pacify them he also received a blow. It is not infrequently that it has become difficult to enforce the normal standards of discipline. Standards have also deteriorated in other walks of life. Acts of violence by students and industrial workers, Bandhs and Gheraos are becoming the order of the day. There has been a failure even in the traditional areas of administration like law and order. Besides the three main goals of administrative reforms, there has thus arisen an additional but basically important objective of maintaining discipline and stability. A Government servant has to be a model citizen and we have to seriously apply our mind to free him completely from the privilege and sometimes the embarrassment of strike altogether.

Faced with a stupendous and complicated task, the Administrative Reforms Commission has adopted a selective approach to the problem of reforms. The Commission has set up 20 Study Teams, 14 Working Groups and 4 Technical Groups. By now 15 Study Teams, 4 Study Groups and 3 Technical Groups have submitted their reports. The Study Teams of the Commission have been as a rule concerned with broad issues in their respective areas. The Working Groups, on the other hand, are in the nature of enquiries into what may be called "departmental administration". Thus, while the main focus of the Commission's attention is on administrative reforms on the broad administrative canvas, the Working-Group approach is designed to cover some of the key departments. Each Study Team and Working Group is primarily composed of persons having specialised knowledge and experience in the

subject of its enquiry. The three Study Teams connected with Personnel Administration are: (1) "Recruitment, Selection, Union Public Service Commission, State Public Service Commissions and Training" (Chairman: Lt. Gen. S.P.P. Thorat (retd.)), (2) "Personnel Planning, Staffing of Public Sector Undertakings and Personnel Management" (Chairman: Shri R.K. Patil); and "Promotion Policies, Conduct Rules, Discipline and Morale" (Chairman: Shri K.N. Nagarkatti). All these three Study Teams have submitted their reports to the Reforms Commission.

I would like to emphasise that we have to find our own solutions to our administrative problems, based on our national traditions and patterns of administrative life. The administrative behaviour is culture-bound. The transplantation of foreign practices cannot take us very far. The British left behind an administrative machine which was meant for colonial administration. We have not, however, during the last twenty years since we attained Independence, made any substantial changes in the system so as to reorient it to the goals of development and welfare. The new and expanding developmental responsibilities of the Government call for some basic change in our administrative structures and personnel practices—a change in kind, not just in degree. We have to ensure all the same that the new systems and practices recommended are viable in terms of implementation, and that they do not add to administrative costs. We have to take account not only of our immediate problems and needs but also prospective demands. In fact, it is the capacity of the administrative system, as reorganised and reformed, to cope with the new and bigger challenges during the next two decades which will be the real test of reforms which the Administrative Reforms Commission may now recommend.

I shall now deal with two basic issues which are common to all administrative reforms. These are: *first*, pruning excessive administrative growth and expenditure; and *secondly*, building into the very structure of administration certain mechanism for better performance.

PRUNING EXCESSIVE ADMINISTRATIVE GROWTH

The total employment in the State sector today is over 95

lakhs. This includes about 27 lakhs of employees in the Central Government, 37 lakhs in the State Governments and another 31 lakhs in local bodies and quasi-government establishments. In India, the increase in the number of employees in the Central Government alone during the nine years, from 1957 to 1966, was of the order of 43 per cent (as against the population increase of 24.2 per cent in this period). The total Government employment at all levels, in the States, at the Centre and in local and quasi-government institutions, increased by about 32.8 per cent during the five years from 1961 to 1966, while the population growth during this period was 12.7 per cent.

In this connection, some international comparisons may be of interest. In the U.K., the employment in the national civil service increased by about 8 per cent during the 12 years, 1954 to 1966 while the population rose by 7.0 per cent. The employment in the U.S. Federal Civil Service increased by about 27 per cent during the 11 years from 1956-57 to 1967-68 as against a growth of 19.0 per cent in the population of the entire U.S.A.

However, the size of Government employees in the U.S.A., U.K. and India, etc., must be judged in the context of the scope and scale of governmental responsibilities in these countries. The Governments of the United Kingdom and United States have not merely to look after the administration within their own country but also have world-wide responsibilities. There is also the question of the financial burden which each country can bear. The developing countries like India cannot afford to allow Parkinson's Law to operate in their administrations. The size of administration must be kept to the minimum necessary for the fulfilment of the various administrative tasks and responsibilities. Some studies undertaken by the Administrative Reforms Commission reveal that the growth in the number of personnel and Government agencies has been out of proportion with the increase in the responsibilities of the Government. There is considerable duplication of work and functions; a large number of staff is under-worked and paper work has become voluminous.

It has become common with our Civil Servants to look up with longing eyes to the luxurious style of living of the executives in the private industry. But they do not correctly assess

the benefits they already have, nor do they realise that millions of our countrymen live below the subsistence level. The Civil Servants in India have always enjoyed a special prestige and they continue to have it, though it is now shared by many others.

Another aspect of the problem concerns the wide gap between the lowest paid and the highest paid government servants in India. In the case of white collar Central Government servants, the ratio of the remuneration of the lowest to the highest paid employees today is 1:15. On the other hand, this ratio is only 1:7 in the Federal Civil Service in the U.S.A. and 1:11 in the United Kingdom. There is no gain-saying the fact that this ratio in India needs to be rationalised.

BUILT-IN MECHANISM FOR BETTER PERFORMANCE

Coming to the second point, it is my view that administrative structures and procedures should be redesigned in a way that would promote shouldering of responsibility and achievement of results. As examples of built-in mechanism for better performance, I would mention to you two basic reforms which have already been suggested by the Administrative Reforms Commission. The system of performance budgeting which the Administrative Reforms Commission has recommended for all development departments of Government will help focus attention on achievement of results. Performance budget is in essence a technique for presenting estimates and expenditure in terms of functions, programmes, activities and projects. It would provide an internal system for watching the progress in attaining programme targets and taking timely corrective action when things go away. It will also help reinforce the principle of accountability to Parliament. We have suggested that this new system be introduced in all developmental departments by 1970-71.

The second basic reform recommended by the Commission concerns the machinery for looking into the citizens' grievances and complaints. The institutions of the Lok Pal and Lok Ayukta recommended by us will not only provide a channel for adequate redress of the citizens' grievances but also release new pressures and new forces to make the administration continuously responsive to the citizens' legitimate demands and difficulties.

As regards the question of rationalising the structure of jobs, pay-scales and staffing arrangements, I would like to state some general principles which may be suitably applied. *First* of all, the duties and requirements of each job may be defined clearly and in detail on the basis of a scientific analysis of its content. In the *second* place, the arrangement of various jobs or positions within an administrative organisation, or for purposes of staffing by a particular grade or service, may be determined primarily by the administrative tasks and functions to be performed. *Thirdly*, the administrative structure may be so re-cast as to provide adequate opportunities for self-development and self-fulfilment of each Government official. This would help bring about a fusion of the organisational goals with the personal goals of the Civil Servants and thereby promote organisational commitment on their part. The general approach which I have outlined would help to build into the structure itself a base for higher motivation and fixation of responsibility.

Some important issues concerning staffing higher administrative positions, training and career development, position classification and rational pay policy have been posed in the working papers which will be considered by this Conference. I would refrain from pronouncing any views at the stage on the various proposals which have been made. The Administrative Reforms Commission, besides considering the reports of its three Study Teams on Personnel Administration, will certainly consider the conclusions of this Conference on the subject.

KEY-NOTE ADDRESS

Human Factors in Effective Administration

H. V. KAMATH

Friends,

During the last two decades since the attainment of political independence and the subsequent founding of our Sovereign Democratic Republic, the people and the Government of India have had to face myriad difficult problems—political, economic, social, linguistic and educational—and we are still grappling with them. I am not wide of the mark when I say that one of the principal causes of the present widespread discontent and unrest in our country has been the growing ineffectiveness of administration over the years and in almost all spheres of corporate life ; and unless ways and means are devised and implemented betimes to re-orient the administrative apparatus, inspire confidence in its teeming and varied personnel, infuse in them a sense of purpose and direction and imbue them with a spirit of service and devotion, the administrative machine will continue to be in the doldrums, and may even grind to a halt. We are assembled in this Conference to study certain important areas of personnel administration, and I hope that when you conclude your discussions you will be in a position to formulate and recommend certain remedial measures for some of the ailments afflicting the administration. As you are already aware, this Conference is being held in order to support administrative reforms through identifying major public personnel problems, considering alternative remedies, recommending new policies or programmes, suggesting priorities as to most needed reforms, and pointing to areas needing further study. Summaries of Conference deliberations and reports on matters on which the Conference reaches a consensus will be transmitted by the Indian Institute of Public Administration to the Administrative Reforms Commission whose Chairman has, in the course of his inaugural address this afternoon, set the pace for your cogitation and deliberations. We shall be engaged for the next four days in a cooperative endeavour, and I trust that at the end of the

road it will be given to us to see at least a little light which will help to fortify us in the belief that the public administration of our country can yet become, and quickly become a fit instrument for achieving the goal of a peaceful socio-economic revolution without which political freedom will lose its savour.

It is almost a truism to say that in administration, no less than in a home or institution, it is the human element that ultimately will make or mar its utility, its quality and its effectiveness. Man is the measure of all things, says the philosopher, and it is the human factor that I shall mainly deal with in the course of my talk. In a larger sense too, as the poet has said, "The proper study of mankind is man". I may add that the higher study may lead him to God, but as Swami Vivekananda so aptly taught : "Service of man is worship of God".

To this problem, therefore, namely, as to how our public administration can effectively serve the needs and aspirations of five hundred million people so that they can have life and have it more abundantly, we must turn our attention and apply our minds earnestly. The Preamble to our Constitution solemnly resolves "to secure to all citizens Justice, social, economic and political", and the Directive Principles of State Policy make the positive involvement of the State quite clear and compelling. The Administration, therefore, (the capital 'A' brings the Ministers of Government also within its ambit) has to shoulder the responsibility for initiating the policy, launching the programme and executing the various processes of change in social and economic fields. If the administrative organism becomes paralysed or even debilitated, misery and suffering, trouble and travail, if not disaster, will ensue.

An effective administration, which, as I have said earlier, is only a means to an end, is the product of the right human element working rightly on a rightly designed and erected structure, with stresses and strains eliminated or at least minimised. Needless to say the human component is crucial and howsoever good an administrative apparatus may be, if the human element is not of the requisite quality and calibre, it is not likely to be effective. On the other hand, it is not impossible that even if the administrative design is somewhat defective, but every worker manning the machine is fired with zeal and sense of dedication, the administration may still become effective and

yield satisfactory results. This is particularly so in a fast changing situation and in a rapidly developing country like ours today.

The Conference will direct its attention to four main areas : staffing of the higher administrative positions ; training and career development ; position classification and a rational pay policy ; and employer-employee relations. I am sure you will agree that these comprise vitally important areas of personnel administration. It may not be out of place for me to place before you some of the broad issues in the context of the afore-mentioned main areas of personnel administration.

First let us take the subject of higher staffing. This question cannot be divorced from two other questions : what are the higher positions we intend staffing ; and where will those who would staff come from? This question has assumed considerable importance, because after the end of the British regime 20 years ago, the old administration, which was designed and motivated mainly to maintain law and order and to collect revenue, was called upon to play a new role for which it was hardly qualified, fitted or trained. The ineluctable, imperious urge for a rapid transformation brought with it the need for evolving multifarious techniques and varied competence in the administrative machinery. The new orientation of governmental activity also demands a new attitude and a new outlook on the part of the Services. It has become very necessary to find men to suit these new requirements and to enable them to cultivate new attitudes, to train them to acquire high competence and to discipline them for a mighty communitarian and national endeavour. The Civil Servants must however be free of political pressure, political expressions and political responsibility.

While what I have said above applies to the entire gamut of public services, the need is most felt in respect of the higher administrative positions, because it is in these positions that administration finds its leadership, and major decisions their instrumentation. Because administration has become increasingly complex in a modern state, administrative leadership today demands much more than ordinary human qualities ; the administrator in higher positions must have a wide range of knowledge, a masterful skill in the application of techniques

and a more than ordinary insight into human nature and psychology. We do not want panjandrums or martinets, but men whose firmness is tempered with sympathy. In the circumstances, therefore, the search for such administrative leadership will have to range very wide, and embrace the whole Civil Service so that the higher administrative positions could be staffed with varied talent and experience.

Whether the existing practices of personnel administration and the structural peculiarities of cadres help or hinder the flow of such quality and calibre to higher administrative positions is a matter for you to consider. The main criterion should, in my judgment, be Merit understood in its true sense; and therefore it stands to reason that we should cast the net wide for catching the best men for such higher positions, irrespective of where they might be working or serving. In doing so we have, however, to guard against the play of whims and caprices of those who are in a position to so select and appoint, and a continual effort should be made to devise as objective a method as possible for the assessment of merit and quality.

If the need for staffing the higher administrative positions with men experienced in various fields is accepted, the consequential changes which become necessary in the personnel management practices will also have to be accepted. Talent has inevitably to be nurtured and developed, and this will require a new approach to career development. The career development programme which can adequately meet the needs of higher staffing would have to enable the higher personnel to acquire the necessary expertise in given fields. Though the generalist will continue to have an important, maybe even a pivotal position in administration, yet some form of specialisation is becoming increasingly necessary on the higher rungs of administration. Therefore, staffing of the higher administrative positions for effective administration will call for a radical approach to the training of the Civil Service and to the development of individual careers.

You will shortly be considering two Working Papers in which some guidelines have been set forth on the staffing of the higher administrative positions and the training and career development of Civil Servants. I would like to emphasise that

the problems posed therein are very real, and if in formulating solutions you are obliged to revise some of the traditional concepts of cadres and service management you may not hesitate to do so.

There is another cognate subject which, I am afraid, has not received due attention in our country so far and that is the need to re-train people in mid-career. The world is changing fast, knowledge is growing apace, and scientific and technological research is continually forcing changes in our mode of living ; the Civil Service can neither be an idle spectator of such kaleidoscopic change nor can the service personnel be insulated from such an environment. An administrator must keep pace with the latest developments and he should also be able to understand and appreciate the significance of the changing milieu. Training in mid-career is, thus, particularly important for those who have to take major decisions and to formulate policies. The identification of problems, providing and utilising all the training facilities in the shape of materials, techniques and funds, is a tremendous task but this task cannot be neglected, for training is good investment and can bring rich dividends in the shape of effective administration.

This Conference will also be called upon to consider a new idea, new as far as our country is concerned, that is the concept of Position Classification. As I understand it, it is, in essence, the principle of appointing a man most fitted for the needs of a particular job. Position Classification can become a good management tool. I realise, however, that there may be practical difficulties in pursuing this method to its logical conclusion, because in doing so our present day ideas of cadres and services may be considerably upset. That, however, should not deter you from dispassionately considering this concept and if it is found appropriate and useful, an empirical beginning could be made somewhere.

You will also be discussing a related matter, namely, a rational pay policy. In the course of my study abroad, in Paris, London, Ottawa, New York and Washington last November, I had the opportunity of discussing this and other problems of Personnel Administration with wise and experienced administrators in those democratic countries. It is surprising—the surprise is tinged with a little sorrow—that the

disparity between the minimum and maximum pay in the Civil Services of our country is much wider than, even two to three times as wide as the gap in those countries. I am aware that our national kitty is not bounteous enough for making striking changes in this regard, but there is no reason why you should not suggest measures for appreciably reducing the disparity, whether by levelling up or levelling down or both, so that our pay policy and pay system tend to harmonise more with the norms of a democratic socialist society.

Having said this, I would like to stress that what I may call psychic emoluments are even of greater importance than material or monetary emoluments. The urge to work for a cause higher than oneself, and the consciousness of serving noble ends can generate energies which may transcend and vanquish material handicaps, at any rate temporarily. I cannot do better than quote from a booklet entitled "The Administrator in a Welfare State" published by the Ramakrishna Mission Institute of Culture, Calcutta : "We often forget that to earn money and just to maintain life somehow is not a big thing. If you work in an office and get your monthly salary, that salary can maintain yourself and your family ; that salary cannot contribute joy or richness to your life beyond this physical maintenance. Those other values have to be found from some other source, within yourself. The joy in the work you do is a product of your own discipline in your life ; it cannot be product of your salary. The money that you get from the work does not automatically give you joy in your work ; because its only function is to maintain your body in minimum comfort. But joy in work is something that you capture from the depths of your own being. If I have not learnt to do my work with joy I will be no better than the animal which is tied to the *chakki* ; the animal goes round and round, does some work for some body else, gets its daily ration of food but does not experience any joy in its life of work. This joy is the special quality and prerogative of a disciplined and trained mind. It experiences joy in the course of work as much as at the end of it ; to such a man the salary and the physical maintenance that is achieved from it are only the by-products of his disciplined mind ; its joy and satisfaction is a commodity which cannot be purchased by any salary. Life-fulfilment

cannot be the direct product of material wealth, however large it may be. The mother's joy in serving her baby cannot be assessed or paid for in terms of money Many people who, I have seen, work just like animals ; animals carry loads and if they get a little food in the evening, that is enough for them. That is their comfort and satisfaction. But in the process of work itself they have not learnt to find comfort and satisfaction and they have not discovered the great truth that life itself is a field of joy." This is the spiritual message of all religions and great philosophical systems which teach that "Work is Worship". It has been well said that "Blessed is he who has found his work ; let him ask for no other blessedness." We must have a man-making educational system.

Last but not least, the subject of employer-employee relations will occupy your attention. In recent years, and particularly during the last few months, agitations and strikes have been, so to say, the order of the day, resulting in loss of time and waste of energy to the nation. It may be easy to oversimplify the causes that lead to such unrest, but be that it may, it is imperative in the national interest to probe this malaise deeply, diagnose it and prescribe the proper treatment for a healthy recovery, and not just for suppressing it. If the malady persists, the prognosis would be very grave indeed. This problem has many facets and it will behove you to examine it from more than one angle : Has there been any marked failure of communication ? Are there any ways through which we can ensure that there is constant understanding and appreciation of points of view as between the Government and its employees ? What machinery should be devised to continually gauge the feelings, the hopes and fears of the employees, study their problems, alleviate their hardships, boost their morale and provide incentives to better work ? Needless to say, the ability and the willingness of the employee to give of his very best to the State and to the nation is crucial for effective administration.

In this connection, I may add that while every human being, necessarily therefore every Government employee, must be enabled to enjoy certain inalienable rights, he must also be taught that rights are inseparable from duties and that a right accrues only when a duty is well done. Moreover, no man who

is engaged in the task of public administration, which is an art as well as a science, can discharge his duties and fulfil his functions to his own inner satisfaction unless he is animated by moral and ethical values. Scientists tell us that Nature abhors a vacuum, and no vacuum is as abhorrent as a spiritual vacuum.

Qualities of honesty and integrity blossom with effortless ease in a soil that is fertilised by moral values and spiritual ideals.

As I am speaking of human factors which go to make administration effective, I cannot resist the temptation of quoting the satirical, harsh but true observations that a distinguished federal and international public servant of Canada, Dr. Hugh Keenleyside, made some time ago about the not untypical public servant in a democracy. "A man rather neatly, but somewhat barely dressed who comes to his office at somewhere between 9.15 and 10.30 in the morning (the hour of arrival being nicely adjusted to indicate his particular place in the official hierarchy and the size of his salary) ; who spends his day in writing letters that become progressively more incomprehensible and more drained of the sap of human nature as practice produces perfection ; who will pass on every transferable decision to someone else, and will compose endless minutes that will reach no final conclusion ; who will postpone even inevitable decisions, in the hope that circumstances will change, or that correspondents, wearied by frustration and delay, will desist from troubling ; who when moved by some sudden resolution or unusual circumstance to action or decision will inevitably discover that the pertinent file has been mislaid and thereupon with a sigh of relief will resume his customary repose ; who will be subservient to his superiors, intolerant to those below him and, when opportunity offers, will demonstrate what Shakespeare described as 'the insolence of office' ; who will look upon all other Civil Servants as dangerous rivals, and upon members of the public as deplorable characters whose complaints and arguments only his unusual endowment of Christian charity enables him to endure ; who has adopted as his guide and inflexible rule the advice of Talleyrand to his secretaries, 'above all, Gentlemen, not too much zeal' ; who after taking two hours for lunch will spend the afternoon in preparing various minor stratagems to ensure that none of his subordinates leave their cubicles before 5 o'clock

and that he himself is able to depart before the clock ceases to strike ; who will then proceed, with umbrella neatly folded and newspaper precisely creased to walk carefully homeward, stopping but once on the way to purchase a small container of aspirin ; and who, home at last, will seek compensation for the futility of his day by hectoring his children and carping over the meals provided by his harried wife." A less picturesque description is provided in the report of Canada's Royal Commission on Government Organisation. "Wide variation in morale and productivity was observed. Rank and file Government employee seems reasonably satisfied with his lot. On a normal day he does not work very hard because, as far as he can see, he is not expected to work hard. On an abnormal day, when there is an emergency, or when for some other reason he can see that more is required of him, he does not hesitate to work harder. Compared to private business and industry, with its greater emphasis on high individual output, the output of many Government employees is somewhat low."

We must, however, so provide and ensure that the public service not only seems a worthy profession but that it is indeed an honourable one. I recall in this context the late President John F. Kennedy's first State of the Union message in which he said ; "Let the public service be a proud and lively career and let every man and woman who works in any area of our Government, in any branch, at any level, be able to say with pride and honour : I served the Government in that hour of the nation's need."

Before I close, I cannot refrain from pointing out the pervasive influence of personal example in the field of administration as in other human affairs ; and consequently the administrator at the top is bound to influence, for good or for ill, his subordinates by his own conduct and action. This applies, *a fortiori*, to the example set by those at the very top, that is to say, by Ministers of Government. Some of the ills afflicting the administration today are traceable to contamination at the fountain head. This age-old truth has been clearly and forcefully expounded in the Gita.

यद्यदाचरति श्रेष्ठः तत्तदेवेतरो जनः
स यत्प्रमाणं कुरुते लोकस्तदनुवर्तते ।

(Yadyadacharati Shreshthah tattadevetaro janah,
Sa yatpramanam kurute lokastadanuvartate.)

“The best set the norms and standards, and others follow.”
This is the gist of the above sloka.

India today is the second biggest country, but the biggest democracy, in the world. I have no doubt that a sound and vigorous personnel policy and administration will be a sure step in the direction of making her the greatest democracy in the world.

I do not wish to anticipate your conclusions nor do I propose to dilate any further on the issues and subjects which you will discuss in this Conference. I am happy that here in this Conference Hall are gathered many men of variegated and mature experience who will bring to their labours a well-stocked mind, a fresh outlook and strength of purpose, men who are, I am confident, imbued with the spirit to strive, to seek, to find and not to yield. If I have stimulated even one new thought or perception in the *corps d'elite* assembled here today, I shall be content. I look forward with eager interest to the outcome of your deliberations, and wish you joy and success in your labours. Jai Hind.

CONCLUDING ADDRESS

C. D. DESHMUKH

Shri Kamath, Dr. Khosla and Ladies and Gentlemen :

I am very grateful for the warm welcome extended to me and the overwhelmingly kind references made to me by Dr. Khosla. I was particularly pleased by the references he made to my very close connection, at least in the past, with this Institute and I feel tempted to add something to the information that he has given—information which is probably within the possession of at least some of those who are present here. It was on my initiative that the Ford Foundation provided the services of Dr. Paul H. Appleby to advise the Planning Commission on the administrative machinery of the country with special reference to the implementation of the plans. I was then Union Finance Minister as well as a Member of the Planning Commission and it was to me that the first Appleby report was presented. It was also my privilege to have assisted in the acceptance by the Cabinet of the two major recommendations made by Dr. Appleby : One the establishment of the Organisation and Methods Division and the other, the establishment of an Institute of Public Administration. In a sense, therefore, I can claim to be one of the mid-wives in respect of the birth of this Institute. All progress that it makes, all the new dimensions that it adds in the course of its development, are, therefore, a source of great pride and pleasure to me.

In so far as my participation in this Conference is concerned, I must confess that I am at a certain disadvantage having been requested to participate only a few days ago when, as it happened unfortunately for myself, I was busy with an important seminar at the India International Centre—a seminar on Planning for Social Change. I have, therefore, not been able to acquaint myself, as much as I should have liked, with the very interesting papers prepared for the Conference, particularly the one on position classification. I had in my hands late last night a brief resume of the discussions of the Conference and I have now had the advantage of

listening to the report of the consensus, that was reached by the Conference. While I mention the disadvantages, I feel I should also mention an advantage ; and that is, that I was called up by the present Chairman of the Administrative Reforms Commission to complete the work that was left unfinished on account of the tragic premature demise of Shri Barve. I was appointed Chairman of the Study Group which considered the machinery and procedures of the Ministries of the Central Government, in which I had the good fortune of working with Dr. Khosla himself and a few other equally eminent colleagues. We have submitted our report. But I must not refer to any part of it in specific terms as it is still a confidential document.

Now, the issue before me is whether I can forget my own contribution to the conclusions which are embodied in this report, especially as, I am to speak on the implementation of personnel administrative reforms, a subject, which apparently, has not been discussed by the Conference since there is no reference in the resume that has been read out by Dr. Khosla. But when he invited me to speak he just asked me to address the Conference. Therefore, I take it, it might be permissible for me : (a) to make at least a brief reference to the matters which you have generally discussed, and (b) to let fall some remarks which at least some of you may try to relate to the work which has been done by my Study Team. I will neither deny nor confirm it, if the opportunity is given to me. And I think that, in any case, it is necessary for me to refer to some of the matters that you have discussed because the question of implementation necessarily raises the issues of what you wish to implement. In other words, implementation might take a different form or present lesser or greater difficulties according to the final content of the decisions. This aspect will be finalised after any additional sessions that you might hold and in due course the results will be presented to the A.R.C. They will be considered against a much wider canvas of overlapping and, may be conflicting recommendations by the different Study Teams; and after they have pronounced their views and communicated them to their Government, there are other hurdles to be crossed before Government could finally announce that they have adopted a particular form of administrative reform. The

location of the responsibility in respect of implementation is bound to influence the sort of recommendations that are finally accepted. In general terms, I should say, while I am on this point, that Government have to bear in mind the resistance against which, finally approved recommendations for administrative reform, will have to be implemented. They would also have to ponder very carefully over the financial implications of administrative reforms. What I have in mind is that even in making recommendations it would be pertinent to consider if any reforms are being suggested which are likely to present such difficulties in their implementation as are likely to prove, in practice, insurmountable. In other words suppose the financial burden of adopting Position Classification is, in the ultimate analysis, very large, it would not be tried all at once. Government might well shrink from taking any step towards this in the way of an unqualified approval in principle.

It is in the light of these reflections that I would try to make a few observations on some of the things that have been mentioned or things which arise from the resume read out by Dr. Khosla.

I will not necessarily make my observations in any conceptual logical order as I have not had the time to gather my thoughts to that extent, but I will take some of the points as they have struck me.

I should imagine that one would expect that we are all moving away from the prevailing generalism partly towards greater specialisation in view of the complexity of developmental matters which now prevail in the administrative field and particularly specialisation at the middle and lower levels of management. From this, to my mind, it would seem to follow that it might be rash to try to unify the services ; but the path of wisdom would be to work for the deployment of specialisation in higher or top ranking administrative positions. This again would imply a flexible promotion policy and I am wholly with the consensus that the best man available, no matter what the source, should be selected especially for the senior management positions including, if necessary, persons from the private sector, who, it is easy to imagine, would not be easily fitted in the present system or even in some kind of tentative position system because they come from another milieu altogether. In other

words, there must be a mental preparation for employing them on some special terms on a tenure basis or on a special contract.

I use the word Senior Management which some of you might consider a somewhat difficult concept in a Conference about Administration but I have more than one reason in justification : (a) I happen to be the Chairman of the Administrative Staff College of India which is primarily concerned with management but which brings for training courses both "Managers" and "Administrators". To me, Management is a species of administration; and management implies leadership and various other things into which this is not the time to enter.

People in the higher echelons of Government administration can very fittingly be described as senior managers. They have a function which is more or less similar to that which is exercised by senior managers in business. There is, of course, a great deal of difference in regard to the objectives which are much narrower in the field of business and much wider involving many human factors, in the field of administration. I also agree with an opinion I found expressed in the course of the discussions. It is referred to in the formulation of specially needed programmes of development of middle management for considering, later, the suitability for promotion to senior management. But where I feel there is a difference of opinion in respect of who should be trained or selected for this kind of training, I gather that there is a large body of opinion which, on egalitarian considerations, favours that everyone in the middle level should be given an opportunity of both training as well as eligibility for a higher post. I should think that in practice this would not be possible, and that as one goes along and studies character rolls, performance rating, academic qualifications and so on and so forth, one would expect only the outstanding ones in some of the lower positions who would be found eligible for consideration even for development, not to speak of final selection to a higher post. We have also to consider whether you are selecting the generalist or whether you are selecting a specialist. The point, I am making, is that there will have to be in between an appropriate deployment for the purpose of giving opportunities for experience both to the generalist and to the technical and scientific personnel. This would mean that the training courses should also have to be

different. In other words, what is meant is that no management job is entirely an administrative job and certainly it is not a specialist job and yet more and more you must have the generalist at home in one of many possible specialities. In other words, all persons selected will not be exactly equal. Some may have a great deal of the art of administration as their background with a proven capacity to imbibe the modicum of specialisation in the fields in which they have operated. On the other hand, you may have a specialist; and all specialists have to administer, no matter where they are, except the advisers, perhaps. There you will have to make up the lag in administrative skills for handling jobs of a more patent administrative responsibility, so that the generalist will have to have exposure to some developmental specialisation and in the nature of things it cannot be in all fields for a sufficiently long period—may be two years or three years. Whereas a specialist, that is to say, one who has been selected from the specialist ranks, would have to concentrate on acquiring skills as a generalist and the final selection could only take place after training, on the basis of character rolls, academic background, and finally the evaluation of performance during training. Now this kind of selection will obviously raise some personnel problems. You might have some very excellent people in their own position who do not happen to have been selected. Such people are apt to feel frustrated if they are not promoted to senior positions. I think one should be candid enough to admit that there could be a case where a man is competent and admirable up to a certain level, but cannot rise higher. Nevertheless, it would be a grave disadvantage to have a discontented person on one's hands and therefore one ought to do one's utmost to ensure that there is job satisfaction, that self-respect is not injured too much at these middle levels. Therefore, the middle levels should be such that they are allowed to exercise as much responsibility as is possible by delegation. The wage levels should not be stingy, that is to say, that there should be special arrangement for compensating the senior man and the middle level man, who happens to have been left behind—a kind of tempering the wind to the shorn lamb. This might reduce the sense of frustration of such persons and yet permit the Government to make the best possible selection.

I have glanced through the papers of Dr. Stahl. I had not the advantage of listening to him and, therefore, what I say would probably be tinged with a great deal of ignorance and you must be prepared to overlook this. I do not know whether this is anything different from the grade systems which we used to have before the time-scales were introduced. I suppose under the fundamental rules and before that in the civil service regulations, and as far as I can make out, the grade system was a ranking in the job system. That is to say that the person may be very valuable but he had to grow in a position till there was room to fit him into any kind of higher position. In those days the expedient of selection-grades was resorted to by way of a compensation. They were not promoted as Collectors but were made selection-grade, extra Assistant Collectors or Deputy Collectors. I am quite certain that Position Classification is, however, a more sophisticated thing and a far more refined concept than the grade classification but in the absence of further discussion and enlightenment I am inclined to think that it embodies a conception which is somewhat geometric in its design. A human being is not exactly like a brick which can be fitted, by size, shape and composition, into a particular kind of structure. Man is non-uniform ; psychological needs and growing family responsibilities vary ; there is unequal range of capacity for development. Many of the higher administrative jobs call for a well developed capacity for judgment which is largely nurtured by the trial and error method. In historical retrospect a historian might say that every human being is destined to fill only a particular position. You are not destined to fill only that position and not go any further in scope and responsibility of work. Often correctly designed training programmes reveal eligibility for advancement against *prima facie* judgments and finally even if one has made one's choice, as it may well be in most cases, it is desirable to fix a period of probation for possible rectification if a wrong choice has been made.

Leaving aside the field of administration proper for a moment, I now come to a field with which I have lately been familiar, namely, that of education. In the educational field, measurement of capacity is easier and on the academic side, position classification, I think, already exists. But to my uninformed

mind a lecturer, reader or a professor or in American usage, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor and a Professor, may be any one, who has nothing more than the capacity to lecture; but he has to live, rear a family and provide for the morrow and hence overlapping scales of pay are found at the higher level in the first two cases, that is to say the lecturer's scale must fit into the reader's scale, the reader's scale has to fit into the Professor's scale and yet you might be aware that all Universities Teachers Associations are agitating for one uniform scale. It means that the man who starts as a lecturer is sure to rise to professorship. But you cannot have Professors as easily as it looks. There are various things you have to consider, you have to judge the quality of research work, etc. Therefore, the distinction is bound to remain. Here also the problem of frustration arises. For instance, in the University one interesting idea was put forward when we reorganised the faculty of legal studies. It was that if a lecturer is not promoted to Reader within the first five years, then it is time to discharge him because retaining him could not help very much afterwards. He will only deteriorate whereas he could, it was assumed, serve as a lecturer in some less reputed institution. This is another side angle to position classification. In a country like India, I doubt if any one can assume that there is equalness of work and job knowledge in all circumstances, whether the employer is the Central Government or the State Government or the University A or University B. I think this idea was accepted in principle as usual. However, on account of considerations connected with vested interests, I doubt if it would be possible to implement this interesting idea.

To return to the field of administration proper, it strikes me that the problem is vast. Higher executive and supervisory responsibility calls for some qualities—only some—which are difficult to judge and which demand a certain amount of experience in the management of men and affairs. And both are helped by appropriate training at various stages. A middle level man, *i.e.*, a District Collector must have a minimum lower level experience as Assistant Collector of a sub-division. Now these jobs are normally to be performed by a lower position service. Indeed, in my own case, when I was an Assistant Collector, there was a conscientious Collector who took a great deal of interest in my

training, made me work for one month each as a Sub-Inspector of Police, Tehsildar, Superintendent of his office, and an Income-tax Officer. (In those days income-tax used to be handled by officers in provinces.) That was a very good thing to do. Because as a district officer you have to deal with all those; and having done the thing, as in business, it gave you much more confidence than if you were felt to be fit all at once for the title of a District Collector.

Now, there is also the need to give exceptional promotion on proved merit. But this merit is not revealed at the recruitment stage; it is yet to be uncovered, in the light of experience. And this leads to a fixed percentages of promotion from lower to the higher echelons. And I consider that this kind of thing is overdone because it is mechanical. Conceptionally, I think 25 per cent—50 per cent is excessive. Indeed in the recent strikes in the Delhi University, our administrative staff was protesting strongly against the induction of a Registrar from outside. They claim that the Registrar must only be selected from those who have been in the service in the University. Needless to say, I think, it is a very wrong attitude. Now, whether in business or in government, management or administration, or executive responsibility, the function, as I said, is more or less the same. This necessarily involves a specialist in generalism. When we say he is the generalist, he is a specialist in administration, provided by both administrative and technical and scientific men. But a generalist, as I have said, in the modern involvement, should have a certain exposure to things handled by a specialist. No specialist can escape some management responsibility. But, by and large, and that is my personal opinion—a technician, a scientist would be best employed or more profitably employed as such. And one who is specialist in management is best employed as a manager. In these days of rapid progress in all spheres of science and technology, obsolescence, fast overcomes an expert. An expert who turns a manager, that is a generalist, must, inevitably, have his expertise diminished or dimmed. I have known an economist who had a long and a successful career as a Vice-Chancellor of a University, who was growing out of touch with economic affairs. That was also my experience—I do not claim to be an economist, but an economic administrator, also growing out of touch

with economic affairs.

Now, both the different ethos of the private and public sector and the different nature of business as distinguished from administration, constitute unsurmountable impediments to anything like a logical scheme of remuneration in public administration. Except in countries which have no private enterprise, it is impossible to devise universally applicable scales of pay. The more tangible surplus of private undertakings is the source of concerted and coercive demands by powerful unions. This is also assisted by mis-guided canons of social justice on the part of tribunals. A current example is the emoluments of the clerical and other grades in the banking companies including the nationalised banks like the Reserve Bank of India. I believe the pay of an orderly in the Reserve Bank is Rs. 600 p.m. It is a good thing to have if other people also get the same and their salary scales were revised correspondingly. But that does not happen. This Rs. 600 has to be contrasted with what the primary teacher gets.

Now the scale of remuneration is bound to reflect the financial resources of the employing agency whether it is a business enterprise, State Government, the Central Government, or voluntary organisations. And even in the Central Government, the pay scale for the superior senior manager in the public enterprises is different, the higher ceiling is Rs. 4000 instead of Rs. 3500, which is the ceiling for other senior managers, because there is no way of bridging the gulf with the field of private enterprise. The laws of demand and supply as well as other factors, sense of security, job attraction—all these imponderables must play a part and create apparently illogical situations in regard to the fixation of pay or uniformity of salary scales. Therefore, my conclusion would be that Position Classification is somewhat like the will-o'-the-wisp trying to fix a uniform scale all over the country, whether a person is serving the Central Government or the State Governments.

As I said, this is not my subject. I was asked to speak about the implementation of personnel administrative reforms and I still make the point that the nature of the machinery will partly depend on the kind of reforms which you finally decide to adopt. Take the case of reorganisation of the Ministries of the Central Government. Now that involves certain structural

changes. Take the case of something that was briefly indicated here—the officer-oriented administration. That again would involve a wide difference in the total personnel that is required or the abolition of noting and various noters and drafters of the hierarchy—some such suggestions are being considered and that is not a secret. Having said that my first point would be that no implementation will be successful unless the Prime Minister, so far as the Central Government is concerned, accepts the moral responsibility for implementation. He need not necessarily follow the details of everything. You would not expect him or her to do so but he must accept the overall responsibility for seeing that whatever is accepted after discussion is implemented and a great deal of alertness and vigilance is called for on his or her part as the case may be. While naturally the Prime Minister will have to rely very heavily on the Cabinet Secretary and we hope that the Cabinet Secretary will be selected in accordance with the excellent principle of the best man for the best job which we enunciated before. These two are fixed—a Prime Minister aware of his moral responsibility, a Cabinet Secretary selected with best care and with the necessary consciousness; then one hopes that he will be supported loyally and competently by the Secretaries of Ministries. I have pondered long before the present study of administration in the country and I have come to the conclusion that this position can finally be brought home to the Secretaries of Departments. They are very competent, very well educated people in great security and it is no use their blaming the Ministers. It depends upon the temperament of the Secretary. All kinds of metaphors are used in this regard. I think these are *alibies* which should not be accepted. Let us reconcile ourselves to the fact of our newness in operating a democracy which is based upon certain high principles like human dignity, equality of opportunity, freedom of speech, freedom of choice and profession, and social justice, etc. Our Constitution refers to these things and the way it is operated, it can only mean that with the illiterate and uninformed electorate, you must expect a certain kind of lack of support, failure, and shortcomings on the part of those who are called upon after election to occupy and sometimes to fill posts of political decision-making. But there is a very large area of

administration where the Minister is neutral and many a Minister I find is mentally prepared to be guided by a good Secretary. Really he is almost too dependent on a good Secretary and therefore, I think that Secretaries must accept the onus of responsibility for the deteriorating state of administration in this country. Now what I said about the Central Government and maladministration is not confined to the Central Government—it also applies to the States. There I would substitute the Prime Minister by the Chief Minister, the Cabinet Secretary by the Chief Secretary—the term Secretaries to Departments is in vogue in both the governments. So it is these people who must wholeheartedly accept the stream of reforms. Through the influence of these people, these reforms must also be accepted by the services as such who are affected. It is only then that implementation is possible. It is only then that it would be worthwhile indicating how exactly reforms are to be implemented. These are relatively less complicated matters but matters which do not lend themselves to generalisation much in advance of our decision or somebody's decision as to what exactly is the nature of the reforms. Amongst these reforms, some can be introduced almost immediately. Some will take time, some will have to be phased, some will have to be tried on a pilot basis, as for instance what has been suggested in regard to position classification. Any structural or institutional reforms, I think had best be tried piece-meal and in a phased manner. So I say that where there are structural changes approved which might involve especially retrenchment or reduction in rank of personnel, then one would have to devise ways, to implement them in phases. Secondly, one would have to devise an effective machinery for redeploying the personnel who are rendered surplus or whose status has been reduced. It goes without saying that in such circumstances there would have to be a strict curb on fresh recruitment at the levels which are affected or at appropriate feeding levels. I have already commended pilot implementation first in some Ministries and in others only after the first implementation phase has gone far enough to justify commencing the second phase. Nevertheless everything need not be phased. There must be a rudimentary personnel frame. Take the proposal to post Finance Officers in administrative Ministries. Independent Finance Officers for Ministries is one

of the things in vogue now and which seems to appeal to people. This need not be delayed. In other words our lack of confidence or diffidence in our judgment need not extend that far in certain cases. One would have to go all out for a change which is considered to be desirable; and it would help if popular Advisory Committees are appointed to watch implementation. That is another thing which we ought to have had as early as possible. Or take the case of delegation which is also one of the points discussed here and I think the conclusions are more or less similar. Decentralisation and delegation can always be done whenever you feel it is necessary. Indeed a conscious effort is required in order to find out the areas which have been overlooked, in which delegation or decentralisation was possible but has not been carried out. A good delegation means that work will flow smoothly. But if it has been an unwilling or inadequate delegation then government work will accumulate and suffer. And if there is too much delegation, there will be erosion of competence. So it is a balance that one has to establish. It differs from officer to officer sometimes, and certainly it will also differ from time to time. Therefore a continuous inspection and review is also a part of delegation.

And now a word about the machinery for implementation. I do not know the range of reforms which will be accepted. It might be possible to assign this business first to a small body—may be the Cabinet Secretary. Then there is the Administrative Reforms Department. Then there are Secretaries to Ministries which are going to be affected by the reforms, who must be associated with the work of implementing these reforms. Now I have only given an illustrative scheme and obviously one cannot lay down too many general principles in regard to implementation. It would have to be considered by a small body which would be the follow-up and they would have to look for appropriate measures of implementing the various reforms. But I come back to what I began with. In conclusion, there must be an acceptance of moral responsibility by the Chief Executive Officer of the Centre or State and then a great care, especially in the initial stages, need to be taken in selecting the key staff or senior management. There has to be an acceptance and involvement by the senior management in this process, which is a challenge to them in the manner I have

indicated, as well as a general acceptance on the part of the services that the reforms are, on the whole, beneficial, and ought to be carried out. I won't detain you any longer.

Thank you very much.

Working Papers

- (i) Staffing Higher Administrative Positions :
Issues and Major Alternatives
- (ii) Position Classification
- (iii) A Rational Pay Policy
- (iv) Training and Career Development : Issues
and Major Alternatives
- (v) Employer-Employee Relations

Annexure V(i)

Staffing Higher Administrative Positions: Issues and Major Alternatives

Introduction

Administration is the art "of getting things done" through the effort of a group or a number of groups of people. Public Administration is concerned with "getting things done" in relation to the formulation and execution of public policies. In a democracy both the elected representatives and the bureaucracy put forth their joint efforts for this purpose. Formulation and execution of policy are inextricably mixed ; and above a certain level in the hierarchy—generally the middle and higher level bureaucracy does get involved in policy. We shall concern ourselves in this paper with these levels of civil servants.

Higher administrative positions

We shall, for the purpose of this paper, consider the middle and higher levels together and take the term "higher administrative positions" to include positions of and above the rank of Deputy Secretary in the Union Government Secretariat, comparable positions in the Organisations and Agencies under it and comparable positions in the States.

The problems being somewhat similar we shall not refer specifically to any position in the State Governments while discussing the various issues but shall concern ourselves with the positions under the Union Government only.

Skills and attributes required in the higher and middle level positions

It is with reference to the skills and qualities required of an administrator that the higher and middle level posts should be staffed. It is not possible to enumerate exhaustively all the skills required in these administrative positions because the administrative functions to be performed are so many and in many different situations and an administrator may not require in the same degree all or any of them. Further, a person possessing all these qualities is a rarity if not non-existent.

The more important among the skills are the following :

- (1) Translating laws, Government policies and decisions into programmes.
- (2) Integrating the work of one department with all others.
- (3) Integrating the different functions within a department into a comprehensive whole.
- (4) Coordinating the functional parts of the organisation.
- (5) Organising and planning operations, scheduling them, estimating manpower and financial requirements and other resource needs, giving leadership and direction to operating staff and coordinating staff and line.
- (6) Motivating employees to high productivity and high quality of work.
- (7) Controlling the officers and staff working under them.

It is also likewise difficult to enumerate all the qualities generally characterising good and able administrators. Nor all of them may be found or developed in a single person. It is also not necessary that every administrator should possess all these attributes in the same degree, as their relative importance may vary with each different position held by him. Besides good character and a sense of dedication to the job, the more important attributes of a good and able administrator may be mentioned as follows :

- (1) A willingness to assume responsibility.
- (2) A capacity to gain insight into diverse problems and to deal with diverse people, and of not being pre-occupied with and confined by his own particular experience or notions or prejudices about these problems ; in other words an ability to grow with the experience gained by meeting the challenges thrown up in his own job.
- (3) An inclination towards action and achievement—not merely the theoretical or intellectual appreciation of problems.
- (4) A willingness to learn, to inquire and to see things in proper perspective.
- (5) Fairness and considerateness in dealing with people, staff and problems—an ability to rise above his own petty prejudices and notions and artisan interests.

- (6) A constant urge to improve the efficiency of the organisation.
- (7) Ability to relate his specific assignment to other larger programmes of Government.
- (8) A capacity to detect trends and to uncover new approaches which he uses for the design of new programmes or the redesign of old ones.
- (9) An ability to translate policies into programmes.
- (10) A personality which permits him to exercise leadership, and understanding of technical programmes and problems which enables him to communicate with and receive communications from subordinates, and an approach to people which inspires and motivates them to move forcefully towards Government's goals, and the ability to obtain high productivity with superior quality of work.

Distinction between generic management functions and specific professional or technical functions

There is a certain amount of semantical confusion in regard to the terms "generalist officer" and "specialist or technical officer" arising out of the continuance of the British procedures for filling up the middle and higher level posts. The first is the practice of selecting "a bright young man" who has received a liberal college education (no matter in whatever subjects it may be) and, after giving him an initial training in the field, appointing him to a middle level supervisory post for which an educational qualification in technical or professional subjects like engineering, medicine, accountancy, law or architecture, etc., has not been prescribed as compulsory, and utilising him, in due course, for appointments to higher administrative positions irrespective of his previous experience and training. He is commonly termed as a "generalist officer". The second is the practice of appointing to a middle level supervisory post for which a technical or professional educational qualification has been prescribed as compulsory, a person who possesses this and of excluding him from areas where his specialised knowledge or training may not find direct application. He is commonly known as a "specialist or technical officer". The first practice has given rise to a belief that a

“generalist officer” by virtue of his native genius and a good general college education and a training on-the-job in the field, can solve any problem and surmount any obstacle with effortless superiority in any higher administrative position. The second practice has led to the other belief that a specialist or technical officer by virtue of his qualification and training in specialised or technical subject has no flair for administration and cannot, therefore, be appointed to a higher administrative post where the direct application of the knowledge gained by him by virtue of his specialised qualification and training is not involved. It is, therefore, necessary to make clear, the distinction that may be made between the generic management functions and specific professional or technical functions.

Installation, maintenance, testing and operation of machines and equipment, preparation and checking of estimates, and drawing technical specifications, drafting legal treaties and documents drawing up profit and loss accounts etc. are examples of professional or technical functions, and require persons with special qualifications and experience in the appropriate disciplines, while the skills enumerated in the earlier paragraphs as being required of higher and middle levels of administrators, are indicative of the requirements of important management functions. Thus if an executive engineer in the PWD is performing technical functions while drawing up blue-prints for the construction of a dam, is he not also performing management functions while planning the various needs and resources for the construction of the dam, procuring materials and men and supervising its construction? Similarly if a doctor manning supervisory position in a hospital is performing technical function while carrying out a surgical operation, is he not also performing administrative duties while training younger doctors, planning men and equipment and resources required for developing medical treatment etc.? Thus when a “specialised or technical officer” is performing the various duties entrusted to him at higher levels in his hierarchy, he is performing generic management functions also.

The change in the nature of tasks of the Government

We need to take note of the great change in Government's operations after Independence. The old problems of revenue collection, law and order, transportation and communications

have continued but at an increased pace. The new problems are much more difficult and extremely involved technical matters. How to develop the capability to construct military hardware, how to construct and maintain fertilizer plants and steel mills, how to double and triple wheat and rice production, how to develop efficient oil refineries, how to lower the birth rate, how to increase exports and control imports ; these are the issues which demand the attention of the present day administration. These problems call for professional, scientific and technical skills in civil servants from the lowest to the highest levels of Government. Decisions involving crores of rupees need to be made with increasing frequency and require the decision makers to have competence in analysing complicated technical information and transmitting it into well-defined programmes and implementing these programmes.

A critique of the present system

A review of the existing system of staffing pattern for the higher administrative positions is relevant for understanding its merits or demerits.

The posts of Under Secretary and above in the Central Secretariat are tenure posts. Except for the Central Secretariat Service, the Government of India borrow officers from other Central Services, and from the State cadres of the Indian Administrative Service only for a fixed period of tenure which is generally 3 years for Under Secretaries, 4 years for Deputy Secretaries and 5 years for posts of Joint Secretary and above. In the matter of placement of an officer in a post belonging to these categories, specialisation of the person considered in the work to be performed in it, is not the main criterion but his general record and the "Service" to which he belongs, the number of years of service that he has put in are the major considerations. Even though these posts are not theoretically the preserve of any one Service there is a preponderance of officers borrowed from the State cadres of the IAS in them. This may be seen from the tables on next page.

As on 1.1.1961		As on 1.12.1966						
Services	Secretaries & Special Secretaries	Additional Secretaries	Joint Secretaries	Deputy Secretaries	Secretaries & Special Secretaries	Additional Secretaries	Joint Secretaries	Deputy Secretaries
ICS/IAS	25	9	43	64	47	23	139	161
IA & AS	1	—	6	1	1	4	3	21
IDAS	—	1	5	4	—	1	8	6
IRS	—	—	4	16	—	2	6	30
IPS	—	—	—	3	—	—	1	9
IRAS	—	—	2	2	1	—	1	2
State Civil Services	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
CSS	1	1	6	93	2	1	18	155
Others	9	3	18	7	10	4	19	12
<i>Total :</i>	<i>36</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>193</i>	<i>61</i>	<i>35</i>	<i>195</i>	<i>396</i>

The approximate total strength of class I officers including the All India Services is about 24,000 with the following approximate break-up:

Indian Administrative Service	2,300
Indian Police Service	1,300
Central Services Class I (Non-Technical)	8,400
Technical Services Class I	12,000
<i>Total :</i>	<u><u>24,000</u></u>

It will be seen that although the technical Services constitute about 50 per cent of the total strength of Class I Officers, they are generally excluded from holding Secretariat appointments. A good proportion of the posts of Deputy Secretary and above (and a very high percentage of the posts of Joint Secretary and above) in the Central Secretariat are according to the above tables held by civil servants in the ICS/IAS. This is justified on the basis that the "Services" primarily recruited for general administration are expected to hold a large number of these posts. It is also a result of the belief that they have a capacity

for performing a diverse variety of jobs without the need to acquire any specialisation in them. The adequacy of this concept has been questioned in U.K. and is constantly the subject of debate in our country.

In the present context of the requirements of an administration with its complexities brought about by the scientific and technological and social revolutions, the issues coming up for decision call for a considerable amount of expertise and knowledge of the subject matter concerned on the part of a high level administrator. Is it sufficient if the requirement is sought to be met, as done now, by having experts on tap? This procedure would seem not only to provide a parallel and duplicating hierarchy of technical and generalist officers but also to introduce a schism in the administrative set-up leaving psychological wounds difficult to heal. Efficiency is casualty in this arrangement because with the expert at the tap and generalist at the top, the one at the top who cannot understand the technology or specialisation is at a disadvantage and the other at the tap does not share the same amount of responsibility in the decisions, and is, therefore, indifferent to the result.

Another justification for the predominance in the higher administrative position of the Services primarily recruited for general administration, is the facility which this system seems to provide for contact with the grass-roots of administration, which is considered a *sine qua non* for eligibility to hold the highest administrative Positions. What is this contact? Does it mean the experience provided by a District charge in the States? A recent study showed that the average time spent in a District charge by a direct recruit to the IAS was only about a year and eight months and that 'the Collector's post was no longer the back-bone of the Service', and that 'for direct recruits the odds appeared to be moving gradually against their holding the post at all during the course of their career'.* And what are the generic attributes of management that this "exposure" to the grass-roots level develops which are not developed by others handling field assignments in their early career today?

* See Shri P. K. Dave, "The Collector Today and Tomorrow", *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, July-Sept., 1965, p. 386, Dr. David C. Potter's Report on 'Training of IAS Officers in the States' prepared for the Administrative Reforms Commission.

Our personnel management system is a legacy of the British and is modelled more or less on the pattern adopted by them in their own country. The administrative class in U.K. lays no such claim to any similar "District experience". Yet they do develop generic management attributes ! And where does the Central Secretariat Service develop this "grass-roots" experience? By a brief attachment to a District in their late thirties and forties? And if this is considered so vital, why cannot it be imparted to "others"? If the term "contact with the grass-roots of administration" really means experience at the "doing" level on the ground can this, as well, not be gained in other assignments such as P & T, Industries, Agriculture, etc.? Is not then the present practice merely a hang-over of the past? An old colonial practice has tended to become a dogmatic creed. In the words of Dr. David C. Potter, "the generalist tradition appears to have gone berserk".

The type of activities now carried on at the level of the Central Government are in many areas distinct from those at the level of State Government so that the experience in the working of the State Government alone may not in many respects be so supremely relevant for the former today as in the past, except, perhaps, in certain Ministries like the Home, Law, etc. The present view of laying stress on experience in the general administration in the States as an important requirement for all posts in the Centre tends to play down the importance of the experience gained by members of the technical and non-technical Central Services, as well as by the other State Services operating for example, in the Public Works Department, Agriculture Department, etc., even though the content of Government business has become increasingly technical or specialised and the experience gained by members of these Services is by no means irrelevant in the higher administrative positions in several areas of activity.

This is not to belittle the importance of the field experience by the members of the IAS as a factor contributing to the development of a high level administrator but to state that this field experience alone is the *summum bonum* of administrative knowledge appears to be a lop-sided view. Properly interpreted "field experience" should mean experience in particular activities such as agriculture, engineering, investigation, maintenance

of law and order, etc.

For manning the higher administrative positions in each sector of activity, experience in the relevant field of activity and possession of related expertise is not only a desirable qualification but also an inevitable one in the present circumstances. In every higher situation, the incumbent has to possess enough grasp of the ways and means, the technology and processes by means of which the purposes are being realised in order to enable him to give effective guidance to the directive effort as a whole. The types of skills expected to accrue to a person holding a District charge may be identified as largely common though varying in degree, to the field experience gained by the members of all other Services in their respective executive assignments. A narrow interpretation of field experience does, therefore, unjustifiably restrict the field of choice of candidates for higher administrative positions.

The limitations of the generalist tradition were realised even in the colonial administration. As early as 1939, the Central Government, created the "Finance and Commerce Pool" as "an expert cadre of officers with special knowledge, experience and outlook", for dealing with the specialised and complex nature of work in some of the Government Departments. The Officers for the Pool were drawn from the ICS, the IA & AS, the Imperial Customs Service, and the Income Tax Department, etc. After Independence in 1950, a Central Cadre of officers was thought of; it was to be drawn from the State Cadres of the IAS and certain non-technical Central Class I Services like the Central Secretariat Service, and IA & AS. It did not materialise.

In the Second Five Year Plan (1956), the Planning Commission felt that "in the context of development, in personnel policies rigid procedures should be replaced. Distinctions, for instance, between administrators and technical personnel exercising administrative functions or between officials in different grades and cadres, which are sometimes drawn are already out of place. There is need to tap new sources of recruitment in different fields, and for shorter or longer periods, men with varied experience and background have to be drawn into the administration.

positions was drawn up. Under this scheme a Central Establishment Board was constituted consisting of the Cabinet Secretary, Home Secretary, the Finance Secretary and three other Secretaries to the Government of India for the purpose of *inter alia* advising the Appointment Committee of the Cabinet on the appointment of officers to the senior posts. The scheme envisaged that the selection of officers for these posts should be made from a wider field including Class I officers of the State and Central Services including technical personnel and personnel in the Public Industrial Undertakings, etc., as by this time the Public Sector Undertakings were already established and the need to draw persons from this area to senior positions at headquarters was felt and recognised. The scheme also included a proposal for the creation of a Central Administrative Pool in order to build up a reserve of officers with special training and experience for the purpose of economic administration and for maintaining continuity of knowledge and experience in the field of general administration. Recruitment to the pool was proposed to be made from officers of the Indian Administrative Service, Central and State Services, Class I and persons with specialised qualifications from the open market at higher age levels. Selections for the Pool were also made soon thereafter. But this scheme did not make any further progress on account of the objections from the associations of the IAS Officers and from some of the State Governments.

Committees and Commissions have time and again reiterated the need for evolution of a sound personnel policy for making selections to the higher administrative positions. The Second Central Pay Commission (1959) made the observation that personnel for the senior posts in the Headquarters Organisation should be drawn from as wide a field as possible and that fuller use should be made of abilities and the diversity of the experience of the officers of the Class I (non-technical) Services, and that the Secretaries of technical departments should have a technical background in their particular field and that technical persons should not be excluded from consideration for senior posts in departments with a considerable amount of technical as well as administrative work.

The Estimates Committee (1965-66) Ninety-third report commended the scheme drawn up in 1957 and recommended

that index cards containing qualification, experience and age of officers should be maintained by the Central Establishment Board for facilitating the selection of officers for senior appointments. That Committee reiterated the views of the Second Pay Commission referred to above.

Now the Central Government has a proposal under consideration for constituting a small Central Economic Pool for the purpose of manning the senior posts in the Economic Ministries such as Industry, Commerce, Agriculture, Finance, etc. This has not yet been formally done in the light of the objections of some of the State Governments and from the associations of the IAS Officers. Officers of the Central Services Class I are eligible for being selected to this pool and the selection of the officers will be made by a Committee presided over by the Chairman of the UPSC. It will thus be seen that the Pool system has passed through many vicissitudes since the thirties and no final decision has yet been taken !

In the meanwhile the placement of officers in higher administrative positions continues to be *ad hoc*. The position has been maintained that it will not be possible to fill the posts in Ministries/Departments dealing with technical subjects such as agriculture, science, education, economic matters, etc. only with officers of the respective technical Services. However, in regard to offices outside the Secretariat Organisation, the departmental or institutional hierarchies are utilised to man the top posts, but even here in exceptional cases where the job content of a particular post is more administrative than technical, a generalist administrator can be placed at the top.

This cautious policy of manning the higher administrative positions in these Ministries/Departments by the generalists is motivated by the desire that close to Ministers and prominent among their advisers there should be administrators unhampered by narrow and biased approach and not unduly weighed down by detail. It is a result of the apprehension that technical or professional officers are in general, likely to be obsessed with their own specialities and may not take a broad view of matters and that it is rarely that a person will be found among these categories who will be above this bias.

The fact should not, however, be lost sight of that the terms "specialist" (including technical persons) and "generalist"

are relative and not absolute. Just as no one is a complete "specialist" there is no true "generalist". If specialisation is likely to breed parochialism or bias, so may "generalism". If the specialists in a particular line band themselves together, so do the generalists especially where there is a separate closed Service of generalists. Some of the prejudices and narrow outlook of the specialists may equally be matched by not a few strong beliefs and notions of the generalists about their own special know-how and their exclusive claim about the breadth of outlook and vision. Sometimes a pure generalist can also get into trouble by pretending to possess knowledge which he may not possess or justifying acts which are least justifiable.

The Minister whom the "generalists" have been advising during the last twenty years after Independence have all been eminent persons capable of taking a broad view of matters. What may be of greater value to the political leaders is not the layman's view but the experienced person's view because they themselves may provide the layman's view being brought to bear on problems.

Further, if there is a separate hierarchy of generalists does it mean that the generalists at lower levels of hierarchy are less general than the generalists at the top levels? How does a lesser generalist graduate into a higher generalist? Where there is a separate Service for generalists they are bound to insist that it is the only source or the major source for providing good high level administrators. It would appear that the "generalist" approach needs to be rescued from dangers of self-caricature and self-deception and should be anchored more firmly to the realities of situation.

This is not to deny that there is no "bias" among many specialists and technically qualified persons. There may be many persons among them who are biased in their approach, but such an attitude may also be found among many "generalists". It is a human frailty to which everyone is ordinarily subject to a more or less degree. Many who are above it may be found both among the "generalists" and "specialists". It is, therefore, necessary to recognise that there is no one "right" source for an administrator, and a really good cadre of administrators in the vast Government Organisation should be developed from many different Services and from different levels and will

consequently represent a great variety of backgrounds. Whatever the programme is, it involves vastly more than what can be provided by any one kind of training or experience or "Service". Good administrators will have to be selected and trained from all Services including technical wherever they can be found, and the field of choice cannot predominantly be confined to one Service of generalists.

This present "generalist" tradition has given rise to the following observations by the Estimates Committee (1965-66) Ninety-Third Report :

"The Committee would also like the Secretaries of Ministries/Departments to so deal with matters of technical nature that the technical advisers do not have the apprehension as expressed to the Second Pay Commission that their views do not get properly transmitted to the Minister."

"The Committee would like to observe en passant that there is a widespread feeling among the Services that the officers belonging to the ICS and IAS regard themselves as an exclusive group, unnecessarily exacerbating feelings that generate inter-Service rivalry. The Committee hope that members of the ICS and IAS would avoid such attitudes towards the other Services and would instead, by their conduct, set high example of dedicated service which may inspire the other Services."

Government has rightly recognised the need for doing away with such feelings. The reply of Government to this is that the first observation is being brought to the notice of Secretaries, Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries, while the second observation is being brought to the notice of the Director, National Academy of Administration for inculcating the proper attitude among the new recruits to the Indian Administrative Service.

There seems to be some irresoluteness and mental reservations in tackling the question of placement of the officers in the higher positions. No where has there been such a gulf between the realisation of what ought to be done in a situation and what is actually practised, as in this matter of placement of officers in higher administrative positions. The "generalist" as a class is no exception to the natural desire in any group of being

jealous of its special position and preserving it, of course, on the ground of wider general interest.

The need for change

The modern technological and scientific revolutions and the intensified social urges for freedom and equality have transformed the working of Government into a highly intricate and specialised affair. From simple mechanical and stable processes the Government activities have become complex, living and dynamic systems. The civil servant has to be more adaptive, more professional and more specialised, in his equipment and knowledge if he has to contribute usefully to the decision making process. Thus among the wide range of attributes, two qualities required in a good high level administrator are somewhat antithetical, viz., diversified experience and continuity of experience or specialised knowledge. A purposeful and sound career development programme is necessary for developing these qualities in administrators. It calls for a systematic programme for locating talent in the various Services, ascertaining their aptitudes and providing opportunities to acquire the necessary knowledge and to gather gradually widening range of experience of related subjects.

The present system of personnel management is such that acquisition of varied experience and knowledge by working in different assignments is just not possible for many of the members of all Services. Even in the case of the few exceptions it is a matter of chance and not as a result of planned career development. This is a lacuna in the present personnel management. This is in some respects a result of the thinking that career development has already been built into the cadre system and the pattern of cadre management, and nothing further is required to be done. It is also partly due to the preoccupation of Government with only one Service chosen as the "elite" Service. Professor Hanson remarked that even today most discussions of Indian administrative problems are excessively IAS oriented. Even this "elite" Service has not escaped the effect of lack of planned career development. The practice of frequent shuttling of officers, sometimes at very short intervals, between wholly unrelated jobs is the rule rather than an exception.

Such haphazard method of career development does not

result in building up an institutional source of good administrators. If the concept of diversified experience has in the past amounted to an unplanned and erratic shifting of persons from one job to another job at short intervals and thereby reducing it to only a superficial acquaintance in any one particular discipline, the concept of "specialisation" has been wrongly associated with the other extreme of "bias" or "partiality" towards one subject with the result that it has virtually amounted to a disqualification for holding higher administrative position.

The diversified experience and specialisation expected of a good administrator should actually make him a new type who will see more widely than the specialist in a narrow field, but more deeply in the field of activity with which he is concerned than a generalist today. It is not necessary that he should have that kind of detailed and intimate knowledge of the activity which a narrow specialist has, but he should have the broad grasp and understanding of the essentials not only of the particular activity with which he is concerned but also of other related activities which will impinge on his own. He is thus a broad specialist. This broad specialisation may, for example, be in any one of the fields such as financial administration, industrial administration, agricultural administration, economic administration, social welfare administration, etc.

This type of specialist may be obtained by giving administrative training to the promising members of the present technical services and by imparting specialised training to selected persons from the present IAS and other non-technical services. Thus it is a matter of giving specialised training to the present generalists and administrative training to the present specialists for enabling them to hold higher administrative positions with competence and efficiency.

The following may be the broad pattern of career development of an officer :

Experience

Assignment

Up to 5 years	Training and development in speciality or technical field. Assignments which develop capacity to work independently in speciality or technical field.
5 to 8 years	Training in supervision and management

	of a speciality or technical field, assignments as a supervisor; development of skills as consultant in his field.
9 to 15 years	Advanced management training, assignments as head of a large programme, development of skill as a senior consultant to Government on technical or special matters. Assignment in the Secretariat in a post of the level of Deputy Secretary and comparable levels.
16 years and more	Training in policy development at higher levels in the field or assignment to Secretariat in a policy post, of and comparable to a Joint Secretary.

The basic concepts

The pattern for staffing the higher administrative positions should consequently include the following basic features :

- (1) The selection of personnel to fill the higher administrative positions should be from as wide a field as possible so that the specialised requirements of such posts are met by locating persons with required skills in whichever group or Services they may be found.
- (2) As a good administrator is a rare commodity, career development of public servants with ability and talents should be planned wherever they can be found irrespective of the group or Services to which they belong, so that they are enabled to equip themselves with the necessary skills for holding senior administrative positions. This should be done at all stages of their career.
- (3) The basis of selection of personnel should be in accordance with the merit principles and such as to inspire confidence among the public servants. They should feel assured that no favouritism is shown and that every person of real ability and talent will be considered on an equal footing for the higher appointments.

The main question that the Conference may focus attention on is : Is there need for a change in the present concept

and practice of staffing higher positions in Government based essentially on the pre-eminence of one generalist service? If so, how is this to be brought about? Amongst the various alternatives to consider are :

(1) **Retain the existing system with some modifications:** We have been at this job of improving the existing system for a long time. The attempts to create a pool of officers for the higher administrative posts have already been reviewed.

Certain other devices have also been adopted. One is to give *ex officio* Secretariat status to certain senior officers of non-Secretariat organisations. A second is to have a Managing Board set-up for certain departments, (e.g., Railways and the P&T) and to give Secretariat status or rank to senior officers in the Board. A third is to place certain non-Secretariat organisations in the Secretariat so that the senior officers have direct access to Ministers without the inter-position of a "generalist" except, perhaps, in a few cases, at the highest level, of Secretary to the Government. While these devices have effected marginal improvements, should not there be a complete metamorphosis in the attitude towards the role of the "generalists" and "specialists" in the policy formulating levels?

(2) **Draw an 'administrative class' from diverse sources and train them for manning higher administrative positions :** An alternative could be to select persons for appointment to the higher administrative positions from among the higher Services, technical and non-technical, including the All India Services, by an examination to be conducted by the Public Service Commission. Candidates in generalist and specialist posts will be eligible for admission to this examination after they have put in 9 to 12 years of service in their respective lines. Candidates successful in this examination could undergo a training course in a staff college and the most suitable persons should finally be selected again on the basis of some tests from among those who have gone through this course.

(3) **Have a unified Civil Service :** Under which recruitment could be made on the basis of a unified competitive examination and the recruits, after a period of initial common training, divided into different functional pools depending on their aptitudes, etc. Functional training will be imparted to them in different training institutions. These pools will not be rigid

water-tight divisions as the present Services are. It would be possible for a civil servant in one functional pool to be assigned to a different functional pool in accordance with his aptitudes and the skills acquired by him. But he will remain in one functional pool for a certain minimum period, say 8 to 10 years on first assignment. Thus there will be different pools in accordance with the broad areas of functions or specialisation required for governmental activities such as pools for agricultural administration, financial administration, industrial administration, economic administration, diplomatic jobs, scientific jobs, technical jobs, special public utility services, educational administration, social welfare administration, etc. Grades in these functional pools shall have the same scales of pay both at the horizontal as well as vertical levels because allotment to the different functional pools will not be entirely on the basis of the candidate's choice ; it will also minimise interpool jealousies and frictions. For manning the higher administrative posts there will be a "policy and managerial pool" to which each officer who has already put in a minimum of 8 years of service in the various functional pools will be eligible subject, of course, to his suitability to be appropriately tested. Members of this "policy and managerial" pool will be utilised in accordance with their broad areas of specialisation to fill the various higher administrative positions.

In addition there may be lateral recruitment to the "policy and managerial pool" of suitable persons from outside the Government Service such as, Universities, Government and other Public Institutes like the Management Institute, and private sector, etc. These persons may be selected by the Public Service Commissions and may be given adequate training before being placed in appropriate positions in the policy and managerial pool.

Those who do not get into the "policy and managerial" pool from the functional pools will have prospects for advancement in the hierarchy of the functional pools to which they have been assigned. These persons should also be given generic management training before rising in their own hierarchy beyond a certain point. Some amongst these may also qualify on the basis of their subsequent performance, etc., for a lateral entry at a suitable stage into this "policy and managerial" pool.

(4) **Have a separate 'Civil Service of India' for higher administrative positions even without a unified Civil Service:** This would give formal shape to the Central Pool for manning the higher administrative positions which is under consideration of the Union Government. The members of this Civil Service of India will be utilised to man such higher administrative posts. An added feature of this may be that some of very senior positions in the State Governments may be filled by members of this Service on reverse deputation from Centre to the States.

Seventy-five per cent of the posts may be recruited from all the technical and non-technical functional pools of the Unified Civil Service or Services existing in the Central and State Governments and 25 per cent of the posts may be filled from the open market.

To those in the Government Service, the entry into Civil Service of India would be open only after they have put in a period of 8 to 10 years of service in their own functional pool or Service and shown their administrative ability and competence. The selection to the Civil Service of India would be made by the UPSC.

(5) **Change the structure of the machinery of Government to make for proper staffing of higher positions:** For example, the size of the Secretariat may be reduced until it becomes a policy cell in each Department or Ministry. The rest of the Government work may be organised in a non-Secretariat set-up. Suitable officers of the non-Secretariat set-up may fill the few senior posts in the Secretariat cell. The non-Secretariat organisation shall have direct access to the Minister; the senior-most officers of the Secretariat cell may have the same rank as the senior-most officers in the non-Secretariat set-up. That is to say that these two (the Secretariat cell and the non-Secretariat organisation) will act in a system of horizontal control and not in a system of vertical control. There may be inter-change of officers between these two also.

(6) **Man position on the basis of Position Classification:** This would involve an objective classification of all the positions in Government in accordance with criteria of comparable duties, difficulties, responsibilities and qualifications requirements and to assign them into a few different grades (say, not exceeding

twenty) on the basis of levels of difficulties and responsibility and levels of qualification requirements so that the one pay range for each grade may be made applicable. The personnel for each grade will be suitably selected, trained and placed. This concept has been elaborated in a separate Working Paper and will be discussed separately in another discussion(s).

To recapitulate the Conference may focus attention on the following questions.

- (1) Why are top posts now filled largely by ICS/IAS and CSS officers ?
- (2) What has been the experience in the States and the Union when technical officers have been assigned to policy posts ?
- (3) What knowledge, skills and abilities are called for today in determining policies in specialised fields such as agriculture, atomic energy, defence, industrial development, etc.
- (4) What preparation would technical officers need before they were assigned to policy posts ?
- (5) What changes in the present structure of the Services would be needed to bring more technical officers into policy posts ?
- (6) What structure for top policy posts would most likely produce the kinds of men needed to staff them ?
 - (a) Should higher Services merge into a unified service ?
 - (b) Should an administrative class be set up to be filled through examination of persons with 9 to 12 years of service and through recruitment from outside ?
 - (c) Should the pool concept be formalised through the creation of a Civil Service of India which would blend the ideas of (a) and (b) into a formal structure ?
 - (d) should the structure of Government be changed in order to move policy down into technical organisations, keeping only a small policy cell to service the Minister ?
 - (e) Should qualification requirements be established

through study of each post and then limit the filling of posts thereafter to persons who possess the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities ?

- (7) How can "generalist" be prepared to communicate with "Specialists" ?

Position Classification

I. POSITION CLASSIFICATION—WHAT IT IS

Meaning of Position Classification

Position Classification is not an esoteric or an abstract concept. Its precepts are simple but its implications are far reaching. It is relatively a modern idea which has had a marked impact on the techniques of personnel administration.

In India, the principles and applications of job analysis are well understood. Job analysis is being applied increasingly in the industrial fields. Job evaluation is the industrial counterpart of Position Classification. It is, however, doubtful whether the concepts of Position Classification have been applied to any significant extent in the sphere of public activity. Both these concepts are of recent origin and the objective of both is organisational rationalisation.

In India and in many other countries, members of governmental bureaucracies are classified on the basis of personal rank. The rank or title of the individual establishes his pay, privileges, prestige and perquisites. Whatever the role of an individual in an organisation, the pay and privileges are the accompaniment of the rank. In contrast under a scheme of Position Classification, the duties and responsibilities of a position determine, *inter alia*, the pay grade and the privileges.

The simplest analogy for a Position Classification system is a bookcase in which the easiest to read books are assigned to the lowest shelf, the most difficult to the top shelf and other books in between based on their relative difficulty. In a Position Classification scheme, a series of grades are defined which permit the assigning of the easiest jobs to the lowest grade and the most difficult and responsible jobs to the highest grade. As the number of jobs increase, a Position Classification scheme brings jobs having related duties and responsibilities into a series just as a library brings together books on closely related topics. In Position Classification, all civil engineers are brought into a single series, into another all physicists, and into another all purchasing officers. In other words, Position

Classification is the process of categorisation of positions into groups or classes on the basis of their duties, responsibilities and qualification requirements. The process of classification of positions assumes that the employee should be paid for what he does, not for his rank or qualifications. That is :

<i>duties and responsibilities</i>	<i>determine</i>	<i>pay and qualification requirements</i>
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Position Classification is a management tool. It is useful to managers for fixing pay, establishing qualification requirements, planning recruitment, selecting new employees, assigning work, promoting old employees, training, budgeting manpower, controlling personnel expenditures and analysing organisations.

For a clear understanding of the concepts of Position Classification, it is essential to familiarise ourselves with some basic concepts such as Position and Employee, Class of Positions, Class Specification, Class Series, Grade and the Classification plan.

Position and employee

The basic unit of any organisation is a "position". A "position" is a group of current duties and responsibilities assigned or delegated by competent authority requiring the full-time or part-time employment of one person. A "position" is the smallest unit in any organisation. It is necessary to emphasise the concept of the position as an abstract entity apart from the employee. A position is a statement of the duties and responsibilities management has assigned to be done by one person. Whether the post is occupied or vacant, the duties and responsibilities are there to be done. When an officer or employee is assigned to a position, he is expected to perform those duties and accept those responsibilities. If he departs significantly from management's expectations, the manager must either guide the employee back to the position or decide to make an official change in its duties and responsibilities.

A manager may add or subtract workload from a position without necessarily changing the duties and responsibilities. He may expand his interpretation of these duties and responsibilities without necessarily changing the position. But if he makes or accepts a significant change, he is in effect creating

a new position which may properly belong in another class, which has different qualification requirements and a different pay scale.

An illustration will help clarify this. A manager asks for and gets authority to set up a new position the incumbent of which will carry files, deliver oral messages, and do other simple work. He is assigned a bright person, who is a trained typist. If he calls upon the messenger to type, the manager is creating a different position. He should either return the person to his assigned duties or ask for authority to create a new position of lower division clerk and for a promotion action. Under a classification scheme, it would not be considered fair to allow an employee to take on permanently the duties of a higher class position without rewarding him suitably. It would be considered improper to allow a person lacking the required qualifications to perform the duties of a higher class. This does not mean that the manager prevents employees from developing their knowledge and skills, it does mean that as the employee develops the ability to undertake more responsibility, the manager makes such assignments officially and with full recognition of the potential impact of the action on his organisation and budget.

Note how different this is from a rank-oriented system. In such a system, an officer of middle rank may be assigned in turn to posts of rather different levels of responsibility without changes in pay. A manager may assign a man with a degree in liberal arts and only very general experience to a technical post in spite of his lack of requisite knowledge and skills. On the other hand, a manager might assign a technician to a policy post whether or not he had adequate preparation for its demanding duties. In short in a rank-oriented system much less attention is paid to fitting employee qualifications to the needs of a position and less attention to insuring comparable compensation for comparable work.

Class of positions

A clear understanding of the term 'Class' is of vital importance. "The term 'Class' means a group of positions—sufficiently similar in respect to the duties, responsibilities and authority thereof, that the same descriptive title may be used

with clarity to designate each position allocated to the class, that the same requirements as to education, experience, capacity, knowledge, proficiency, ability and other qualifications should be required of the incumbents, that the same tests of fitness may be used to choose qualified employees, and that the same schedule of compensation can be made to apply with equity under the same or substantially the same employment conditions."¹ In other words, a class of positions is a group of positions which notwithstanding the organisation in which they are located: (1) are sufficiently alike in their duties, responsibilities and authority to justify the same *designation* being applied to the entire group, (2) require the same education, training and experience, (3) same tests of knowledges, skills and abilities can be used in appointment, transfer, or promotion, and (4) of a similar level of job worth and hence deserves the same salary range under the same conditions of employment.

It would be observed that the definition of "classification" takes the principles for determining whether two or more given positions belong to the same class or to different classes. The principles could be re-stated as follows:

- (1) Posts should be carefully studied to determine accurately what work and responsibilities are assigned to them.
- (2) Posts having similar subject-matter assignments, the same level of responsibilities, and requiring the same education and experience should be placed in the same class.
- (3) Posts having significantly different assignments or responsibilities of different levels or requiring quite different education and experience should be placed in different classes.

Class specification

A class specification is a description of the duties, responsibilities and qualification requirements of the positions

¹ Report of the Committee on Position Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Services of the Civil Service Assembly of United States and Canada, p. 45.

included in a class. The usual format of a class specification is as follows :

- (1) **Class designation:** a descriptive and distinctive name assigned both to a class and to all posts in that class, for example, "civil engineer grade 12". The class designation is used in all personnel transactions and in budget documents.
- (2) **Characteristics of the class:** a definition of the kind and level of the duties and responsibilities of posts included in the class.
- (3) **Typical tasks:** a listing of typical work assignments and responsibilities found in posts included in the class.
- (4) **Minimum qualifications:** a description of the minimum education, experience, knowledge and abilities required to do the work in the class.

Figure 1. is a typical class specification.

Fig. 1

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY PLANNING

CLASS DESIGNATION:	Lower Division Clerk Grade III
PAY SCALE :	Rs. 110-3-131-4-155-EB-4-175-5-180

Characteristics of the class : This is the beginning level, with varied assignments, which require performance of duties of a routine nature requiring the application of a limited variety of specifically applicable postal, filing or administrative regulations, the use of a simple sorting and filing system, typing skill and knowledge of simple clerical and other related work which can be readily learnt on the job. Has no supervisory responsibilities.

Typical Tasks : Receives, reads and segregates incoming communications and distributes these according to general subject-matter content ; reads and checks out-going mail for completeness, readiness for despatch, and conformity to a substantial number of administrative instructions and to any applicable postal regulations, e.g., (proper and complete address, proper signature, proper enclosures, date and similar details) ; types notes, letters and statements, cuts stencils, compares typed material ; diarises the incoming dak and distributes it to the concerned employees ; records movement of incoming and outgoing files ; collates information of pending cases and prepares weekly and monthly statement of cases pending disposal ; drafts simple letters and maintains files of routine nature ; maintains casual leave register of Class II, Class III and Class IV employees ; receives monthly indents for items of stationery from different sections, scrutinizes the same keeping in view the staff strength,

items issued in previous month, and the material available in stock, and seeks orders of his superior in respect to quantity to be issued; does other related work which may be assigned to him by his superior.

Minimum Qualifications : Matriculate or Higher Secondary level, ability to read rapidly, to write clearly and logically in English, to make arithmetical calculations, to type 30 words a minute, and to learn office routines.

Class series

A class series is composed of several classes of positions closely similar as to line of work but differing in responsibility and difficulty, arranged in a manner to indicate the normal line of promotion.

Grade

A Grade includes all classes of positions which although different with respect to kind or subject matter of work are sufficiently equivalent as to (1) level of difficulty and responsibility; and (2) level of qualification requirements of the work—to warrant inclusion of such classes of positions within one range of pay scales.

Classification plan

A classification plan brings together all of the class descriptions arranged in class series by grade. It also contains instructions for maintaining the classes up to date and for adding or abolishing classes.

Development of a classification plan

Having outlined the basic precepts of Position Classification, we proceed to indicate the procedure which is followed in the preparation of a classification plan. There are four steps involved in the development of a classification plan :

(1) **Collecting the facts** : Ascertaining, recording and analysing the duties, responsibilities and other distinctive characteristics of the position to be classified (job analysis and job description). It is not only essential to collect adequate information with respect to the individual positions to be classified, but the relation between the job of one employee and another and the whole hierarchy of authority has to be ascertained. Although a number of methods can be employed to

obtain this essential information, in practice the most convenient and useful procedure has been to study the position through the employee himself, *i.e.*, to ask each employee to fill up a Questionnaire describing his duties and responsibilities. To supplement the information thus collected after preliminary review of the response of the employee, the inadequate responses are clarified by sending an Analyst to observe the work being done and to interview both employees and the supervisors. The use of Questionnaires, the interviews, and the conducting of first hand observations develops a feeling in the management and the employees that they are participating in the development of a Position Classification Plan and that it is a cooperative effort. It is necessary to emphasise that the generation of this spirit makes the plan more acceptable both to management and employees.

(2) Writing the class descriptions : With full information on hand about duties and responsibilities, flow of work, delegation of authority, policies, procedures, and organisational structure, the classifier is now ready to prepare his first drafts of class descriptions. He sorts the questionnaires (or job descriptions for vacant posts) into broad occupational groups, such as civil engineers, clerks and mechanics. Then, he sorts these again into groups of distinct classes.

The classifier now reads again the questionnaires and job descriptions that have been placed together and from them jots down their typical tasks. With these in mind, he writes out a statement which will make clear the kinds of posts that should be included in this class and those which would be excluded. Consulting with management and occupational experts, he drafts a statement on the minimum qualifications required for this class. As a last step, he assigns a brief, descriptive title to the class.

When he has completed his first drafts of his class descriptions, the classifier assembles these by occupational groups and compares them carefully. He may find that what at first appeared to be separate classes can be combined into one. He may find that he must break what appeared to be a single class into several classes. Then, he brings together related classes by class series, checking to see if he has made clear distinctions as to the levels of the responsibilities of the hierarchy in a series.

Now, he rewrites his class descriptions, sharpening them so as to make crystal clear what posts belong to them.

(3) Allocating posts to classes : The classifier now reads once more each questionnaire and job description and assigns each to one of the classes that he has described. Some of the classes will have many posts in them, others but one post. He jots the name of the class on the questionnaire or job description. He prepares lists showing by organisational unit the classifications, the names of the incumbents of the posts so classified, and the number of vacant posts in each class.

(4) Notification of employees : Copies of the class descriptions are made available at central points to employees. Then, the establishment officer notifies each employee of the classification of his posts and gives any employee who thinks a mistake has been made an opportunity to appeal against his post's classification.

Within a reasonable number of days after such notification, the establishment officer and fiscal officers change their records to show the new official title and grade for each post.

Agency for continuous review of the plan

The determination of classes requires objective exercise of discrimination and judgment. Notwithstanding the considerable influence Position Classification has had on Personnel Administration, it is not an exact science and hence it is essential to build into the plan a mechanism which ensures continuous review and scrutiny of the plan. For this purpose, an agency to administer the plan has to be established and an agency for hearing of appeals has to be nominated.

BENEFITS OF A CLASSIFICATION SCHEME

Having outlined the basic underlying concepts of Position Classification, we will proceed to indicate what benefits and advantages can be derived by an organisation by the development and introduction of a Position Classification Scheme.

Equitable compensation

Position Classification was adopted in the United States primarily to ensure "equal pay for equal work". The general objective of Position Classification is to lay the foundation for

equitable treatment of public employees. By defending positions precisely and arranging them systematically in a class, evaluation of positions becomes possible.

Objective definition of job content

The contents of a class specification have been indicated above. Specifications are a storehouse of information for Management's use and this information serves various needs. When for example a demand is voiced by employees for a raise in salary the class specifications provide a basis for comparing their jobs and rates of a pay with those in other agencies for making equitable comparisons. A demand was recently made by the cockpit crews of the Indian Airlines Corporation for a raise in their salaries. For the settlement of this demand, the Commission which has been appointed by the Government considered it essential to compare the class specifications of the IAC cockpit crews with the class specifications of the cockpit crews of Air-India International.

The Indian Airlines Corporation retained the Indian Institute of Public Administration for preparation of the class description of the Senior Commanders of the IAC. An analysis of the duties and responsibilities of the IAC Commanders revealed that while the duties and responsibilities of the Commanders of both Air-India and Indian Airlines Corporation are akin, the Commander of Air India flies only one type of aircraft, namely, Boeings whereas the Commander of the IAC flies Caravelles and Viscounts in a mixed pattern of operations and logs 72 flying hours a month of which 25 per cent are on Viscount and 75 per cent on Caravelle, involving 42 to 44 landings. Of these landings, 75 per cent are into airfields not equipped with Instrument Landing System available at International airfields. From this analysis it emerged that for landings into airfields not equipped with Instrument Landing System, the Commander has to exercise greater vigilance, judgment and skill than in landings into airfields equipped with the Instrument Landing System. It also emerged that an IAC Commander is required to have a good knowledge of the flight characteristics of different models of two or more classes of aeroplanes whereas the Commander of the Air-India has to keep himself acquainted with only one type of aircraft. This

factor has added a new dimension to the difficulty of the job of the IAC pilot and is an important factor which has to be given adequate weightage in assessing the relative difficulties of an Airlines Commander's job. This example has been cited to illustrate the utility of a class specification.

Fixation of responsibilities

Responsibility cannot be fixed, delegated or exercised unless it is defined. A classification system provides two broad aids to management for this purpose : the position description and the class description. The position description, required for each employee, spells out in some detail what is required in a particular post of its incumbent. Thus the position description defines for both the employee and his supervisor what is expected of him, what his assignments are, and what his responsibilities are. The class description is more general but is also quite useful. It shows the breadth of the possible assignments that can be made to a person in that class, the qualification required, the appropriate pay. Related class specifications show what is required of those who seek promotion or reassignment. From management's viewpoint, the position descriptions are a useful tool for assessing duplication of effort, under utilisation, or overloading of employees.

Recruitment and selection

Under a Position Classification scheme, a variety of occupations are placed in the appropriate class, thereby numerous occupations and positions are reduced to manageable proportions and pay levels are rationally controlled. As the entire class can be fitted against a particular salary scale, recruitment and selection can be made for a whole class of positions.

Training

The availability of job information facilitates development of orientation and in-service training. A clear picture of opportunities and inter-relationship of position emerges which affords the incumbents of various positions a clear indication of promotion opportunities and career development.

Meaningful designations and clear lines of promotion

In the absence of a classification scheme, lines of promotion cannot be clearly defined and there is bewildering and confusing array of designations which do not reflect the kind of work done in various positions. Titles have no relation to duties performed. High sounding titles are used for routine work. It may happen that the same kind of positions may be given different designations or in converse for entirely different positions a common designation may be used. Some examples of this are given in Part II of this paper.

Two essential ingredients of a good designation are :

- (1) The designation should reflect the job content.
- (2) The designation should reflect the level of the position in relation to other positions in the occupational group..

Once clear designations have been assigned, the duties and responsibilities of the various positions spelt out and the qualifications necessary to fill them indicated selection, placement, promotion, transfer and training problems can be handled rationally and efficiently.

The rapid spread of classification movement is attributed to the fact that both the interest of government and the interest of workers demand categorisation of positions on the basis of duties and responsibilities. Oliver C. Short pointed out :

“Recruiting and the many and varied other personnel problems are as unscientifically and blindly handled in the absence of duties classification plan as would be the construction and furnishing of a building without plans and specifications.”²

Understanding of job content

Position Classification scheme makes it incumbent on the applicant for a job to possess detailed knowledge of the duties of the position for which he applies. This is not so under a system of rank-classification. In the latter system, the employee brings a certain potential to the position which is reflected by the rank and qualifications of the employee.

Under a Position Classification system, jobs are assigned

² STAHL, Public Personnel Administration, p. 84.

to classes according to their duties and responsibilities. The qualification requirements are determined from an analysis of these. To illustrate, under a Position Classification scheme, the duties and responsibilities of an Under Secretary will be spelt out on somewhat the following lines :

“Under general supervision, organizes and coordinates the functions of a Branch (consisting of two or more Sections) in a Department or a Ministry. Assists in the formulation of policy in relation to subjects assigned to the Branch. Keeps under constant scrutiny policy of the Ministry/Department relating to the subjects assigned to the Branch and suggests modifications consistent with the overall objectives of the Ministry/Department. Continuously appraises effectiveness of existing procedures and initiates proposals for revision as inadequacies are noted. Interprets, policy procedures and directives of the Ministry/Department to his subordinates and to the public. Instructs his subordinates as to objectives, plans, policies, procedures and office methods. Organizes plans, assigns and directs flow of work in the Branch and is responsible for discipline and the efficient functioning of the Branch.

Disposes at his level as much work as possible. While referring questions to a higher level, provides all the requisite information and initial advice to facilitate decisions at more senior levels. Prepares papers in which Ministerial decisions are sought on important points (Cabinet Papers) and discusses these with senior officers in his own and other departments. Represents his department in inter-departmental meetings.”

The minimum qualifications for this position would read as follows :

Education General : Higher Secondary or equivalent for promotion quota or University degree for direct recruits.

Length and kind of experience : 8 years as Section Officer or in another post which would prepare the officer to deal with policy formulation, interpretation of procedures, and supervision.

Special knowledge Should be conversant with rules
and other factors : and regulations of the Government.

The qualifications for the class of Under Secretary have been determined keeping in view the scope of duties and responsibilities of the class. As sometimes happens, there may be a man with a Ph.D. Degree working as an Under Secretary along with other Under Secretaries whose educational qualifications are inferior to his but the nature of their duties and responsibilities is such that they have been placed in the class of Under Secretaries. It is quite possible that the man who has a Ph.D. Degree is far more efficient than his other colleagues in the discharge of his duties. He, therefore, feels that on account of his higher qualifications he should be given a higher salary. Under a classification scheme, this argument would be irrelevant because his duties are the same as those of the other Under Secretaries and his job is properly classified. Under a classification scheme, the duties assigned to the position are classified rather than the individual in it. If workers were to be paid for their qualifications rather than what they do, the principle of comparable pay for comparable work would not be attainable. The course open to the Under Secretary with a Ph.D. Degree would be to apply for a job requiring the qualifications he possesses.

How a Position Classification scheme aids to the development of a rationally integrated pay plan

A Position Classification Plan is used in setting up a good pay plan. It facilitates establishment of rationally integrated pay scales and the development and formulation of a sound salary policy. A brief discussion of the objectives of a good pay system would indicate how Position Classification contributes to the development and formulation of a good pay policy. A good pay system requires that :

- (1) Under the same conditions of employment, employees doing work of comparable difficulty and responsibility should receive comparable compensation. In other words, for equal work, pay or compensation should be equal.
- (2) Persons whose work is more difficult, more complex or responsible, should have higher status and the

potential of higher pay than those whose work is simpler.

- (3) Supervisors should have higher status and pay scales than those of their subordinates.
- (4) The salary rates of government should be comparable with those paid by the best private employers so that outstanding and capable persons are attracted and retained.

The categorisation of positions into classes facilitates comparison of the relative difficulty and importance of the duties and responsibilities of the different positions from the lowest to the highest rank. Pay is not determined for individual positions or on the basis of individual personal attributes. Pay is determined on the basis of the relative difficulty in the duties and responsibilities of a class of positions. Position Classification establishes a consistent and logical relationship between the salary scales and work performed. The main benefits and advantages of a Position Classification Plan can be resolved in the following synopsis :

- (1) Position Classification establishes a rational system for pay that permits comparable pay for comparable work.
- (2) Establishes qualification requirements for posts, based on their duties and responsibilities, which facilitate recruitment, assignment and promotion.
- (3) Focuses the attention of the employee and the manager on the work to be done and ensures clear-cut assignments by management to each employee.
- (4) Reduces numerous occupations to manageable proportions and pay levels can be rationally controlled.
- (5) Defines objectively the job content and thereby aids in the fixation of responsibility.
- (6) It supplies job information which facilitates development of orientation and in-service training.
- (7) It gives a clear picture of promotion opportunities.
- (8) It facilitates the development of career pattern in which employees are rewarded for the development of greater technical skills.
- (9) It also facilitates a number of other things such as fiscal control, organisational planning, parliamentary review of budgets, manpower controls, etc.

II. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF A GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT

To test the feasibility of introducing a Position Classification scheme, the Indian Institute of Public Administration undertook an empirical study of a Government Department, namely, the Department of Family Planning. The study covered all the positions from the lowest clerical level to that of an Under Secretary in the Secretariat Wing and from the lowest technical level to that of an Assistant Commissioner in the Technical Wing.

The existing placement practice in the Department of Family Planning is that of obtaining manpower for filling up specific positions from various services/cadres. Open market recruitment is resorted to in a negligible number of cases. For example, the Secretariat Wing is manned by incumbents drawn from the Central Secretariat Service, Central Secretariat Clerical Service and All-India Service (IAS/ICS). Emoluments at certain levels are not determined by a specified scale of pay of the position occupied, but by the service of which the incumbent is a member. To illustrate, the position of a Deputy Secretary if filled by an officer of the Central Secretariat Service is remunerated in the scale of Rs. 1100—1800 ; if filled by an officer of the Central Services, it would be remunerated according to the pay scale of the officer in his parent cadre which may be Rs. 1100—1600 or Rs. 1300—1600, plus a special pay of Rs. 300 per month. If the officer is drawn from the All-India Services, the remuneration would similarly be the scale of pay in the parent cadre, plus a special pay of Rs. 300 per month. The scale of pay in the latter case would invariably be Rs. 900—1800 and may in some cases, be Rs. 1800—2000.

In the Technical Wing the lower technical positions are filled by incumbents drawn from the Secretariat Services. The higher positions are filled by officers from the Central Health Services, Central Information Services, General Central Services. In these cases also the remuneration is determined by the seniority of the officer in the service to which he belongs.

The empirical study of the Department of Family Planning related to 165 positions. On the basis of information

collated in response to the Questionnaires, 35 class specifications and 9 class series have been formulated and a pay structure consisting of 15 grades has been suggested. The class specifications and the class series provide information about what work is being done and where it is being done. Similar positions have been logically grouped under meaningful job designations which provide a common language for everyone concerned with personnel management, planning and budgeting. A clear description of positions and the qualifications required for filling them have been suggested. On the basis of the salary plan and the class specifications, a Position Classification Plan has been developed.

From the empirical study of the Department of Family Planning, though limited to 165 positions, some useful inferences can be formulated which are of wider application than the limited scope of the study may suggest. It is possible, that a number of the shortcomings observed, exist in many departments/organisations, since essentially the organisational structure and personnel practices are the same in all departments.

Some of the significant shortcomings of the present system of the personnel administration are enumerated below :

- (i) *The pay structure is not equitably or rationally integrated*

Positions having the same range of duties or the same degree of responsibility are assigned to different grades. In other words, the remuneration for comparable positions is not comparable.

Examples :

- (a) Some analysts in the scale of Rs. 350—900 are supervised by a Section Officer who is in the same scale of pay.
- (b) A U.D.C., two investigators and two Assistants in the same section are engaged on identical work. Their scales of pay are :
- Rs. 130—280
Rs. 210—530
Rs. 325—575
- (c) The Publicity Assistant and Assistants have comparable duties and responsibilities. Their

pay scales are different, viz., Rs. 325—575 and Rs. 210—530 respectively.

(ii) *Job descriptions do not exist*

The incumbents of various positions do not know clearly what is expected of them. Neither do their supervisors. Consequently responsibility for failure to perform, adequately or in time, is difficult to fix on any particular individual. Absence of job specification also results in duplication of effort and the objective evaluation of performance is rendered difficult.

(iii) *The designations used are defective*

The designations are not descriptive and do not reflect the importance of the work performed in a position and its relationship with other positions in the hierarchical structure of the organisation. At times, high sounding titles are used for routine work. The same kind of positions are designated differently or for entirely different positions, a common designation is used. The following examples are illustrative of defective designations :

Incumbents of positions who are performing simple routine clerical duties are designated as Technical Assistants, Senior Technical Assistants, Analysts, Committee Officers and Investigators. Their duties and responsibilities are akin to those normally assigned to an Assistant and the appropriate title for these position, is Assistant. Further, there are three positions of Assistant Commissioners. The subjects they deal with are diverse. The allocation of duties amongst them is as follows :

- (a) Assistant Commissioner (Media)—His function is the development of publicity programmes of the Department.
- (b) Assistant Commissioner (Supply)—His primary function is procurement of stores/equipment required by the Department.
- (c) Assistant Commissioner (Family Planning)—

His primary function is that of supervision and direction of field operations.

It has been observed that the nature of duties and responsibilities of the three Assistant Commissioners in the Department of Family Planning are not similar. The educational qualifications and experience required for these 3 positions are also different. These positions, therefore, do not belong to the same class. The more appropriate titles for these positions would be Chief Publicity Officer, Controller of Stores and Purchase, and Programme Director respectively.

- (iv) In addition, the empirical study has indicated other defects generally found in a system which does not have a duties classification. For example the specific educational/training requirements of positions have not been spelt out which results in defective placement practices. The present system is not conducive to the development of a rational and efficient procedure for selection, promotion, transfer and training of personnel. Likewise, rational channels of promotion do not clearly emerge from the existing arrangement.

III. POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

An important question for consideration is whether the empirical study of one department of Government provides adequate evidence and insight to arrive at the conclusion that a Position Classification scheme, covering all operations of government, should or should not be introduced and the existing arrangement should be modified partly or should be completely substituted. The implications of this are far-reaching :

The Conference may focus attention on the following issues :

- (1) A Position Classification system has proved to be an efficient tool for personnel management in the countries which adopted this system. In India, the last two decades have witnessed an unprecedented growth in the number and variety of positions in the public services. Is the present system of personnel

management capable of meeting the new challenges or can the personnel problems be resolved in a more rational and systematic manner by the introduction of a Position Classification scheme ?

- (2) A major factor for consideration is the administrative arrangements, the phasing, the time, effort and expenditure involved in the installation of a completely new system. The experience of Philippines, which recently undertook a comprehensive classification and salary survey, is that the installation of a Position Classification scheme resulted in a 12 per cent increase in salaries. Will possible additional expenditure be commensurate with more efficiency ?
- (3) Would it be possible and desirable to cover positions only up to a certain level by a Position Classification scheme ? If so, what should be that level ?
- (4) Should the introduction of a Position Classification scheme be confined to certain Departments only ?
- (5) For the development and administration of a Position Classification plan, it is essential to create a Central Classification agency to maintain a coordinated and continuous control over the classification plan. What would be the effect of constituting a Central Classification Agency on the existing agencies of personnel management ?

For example :

- (a) Departments/Ministries concerned with specific services under their administrative control.
 - (b) The Home Ministry.
 - (c) The Establishment Officer.
 - (d) The Establishment Board.
 - (e) The Appointments Committee of the Cabinet.
 - (f) The U.P.S.C., etc.
- (6) Are the concepts of Position Classification compatible with a personnel system which is based on services and cadres ?

A Rational Pay Policy

Any consideration of pay policy would lead to the following questions :

- (1) What is the level of remuneration of individual employees? (*i.e.*, the quantum of pay);
- (2) How does the individual's pay compare with pay of similarly situated jobs in other organisations, (*i.e.*, external relativity) ;
- (3) What is equation of the individual's pay with those working at other levels in the same organisation ? (*i.e.*, internal relativity) ;
- (4) How does the pay of the individuals placed at different levels vary with time, the job remaining the same (*i.e.*, the pay scales and structure) ; and
- (5) How a change in any one of the above four conditions is initiated, considered and implemented ? (*i.e.*, institutional arrangements for basic pay policy).

It is a truism to say that pay policy cannot but be considered in the context of the social, economic and political situation in a country. This holds for every organisation both in Government and non-Government sector. Therefore, it is necessary that this frame of reference for a rational pay policy is clearly understood and explicitly stated. Each element comprising the socio-economic-political complex relevant to pay policy is like an independent variable and pay policy is a function thereof. Thus every socio-economic-political situation provides a frame for a suitable pay policy and any change in pay policy has to be consistent with the frame.

The following elements appear to be relevant for our discussion :

- (1) Indian national economy is a mixed economy and has two broad sectors—the “state sector”^{*} and the

^{*} In this paper the term “state sector” comprises the “government sector”, the local bodies and the quasi-government organisations; “government sector” comprises the Central and State Governments; “quasi-government sector” includes all organisations wholly or substantially financed and/or controlled by government; and “public sector” has been taken to include the industrial, commercial and other “profit making” public sector enterprises.

“private sector”.

- (2) (a) the state sector is expanding at a much faster rate than the private sector ; and
 (b) even in absolute terms, quantum of employment in state sector is much higher than the entire organised private sector. (Appendix A)
- (3) There are differences in the paying capacity of various organisations within the state sector itself.
- (4) Our nation is wedded to the socialistic pattern of society. There is a conscious state policy for narrowing the gap between the highest and the lowest.
- (5) Our country has continental dimensions having : (a) considerable regional differences in working conditions, cost of living, etc., and (b) variations in the supply and demand position of various skills from region to region.
- (6) Ours is a developing economy where :
 (a) a high level of unemployment prevails except in a small number of skills ; and
 (b) the requirements of various skills in the two sectors—government and non-government sectors—are considerably different. Therefore, the flow of personnel to and fro between the two sectors is not smooth. However, “homogeneous” skill markets are emerging in some fields like engineering, medicine, etc. (the term “homogeneous skill market” implies an equally well developed demand for a particular skill in both sectors).

External relativity of emoluments

Issues :

- (1) Desirable level of share of state sector of the talent in *various skills* and at *various levels*.
- (2) Policy to acquire the necessary complement at : (a) lower levels, and (b) higher levels.

(a) Lower levels

- (i) whether government should compete and pay what the demand-supply position of the labour market requires ; or

(ii) whether it should follow the concept of a need based minimum wage.

(b) *Higher levels—possible alternatives*

(i) open competition with the private sector thus accepting the principle of fair relativity; or

(ii) have statutory powers to divert the necessary number of able persons to Government ; or

(iii) fair relativity through regulation of national incomes policy.

(3) What should be the differential between the maximum and the minimum.

Share of skill

As an economy develops the demand for various skills also increases. Both the state and the private sector explore the same employment market. To the extent that terms and conditions under one sector are less favourable, the talent under normal law of supply and demand is likely to be diverted to the other sector. For determining the general level of emoluments in government sector, therefore, it is necessary to be quite clear whether the government should try to attract the requisite talent for its own purposes. In other words, the question is whether the government should figure as an active partner in the employment market or should be satisfied with being a residual receiver. Clearly the role of Government in relation to economic and social aspects of national life has become very important; Government is a considerable owner of even industry. The calibre required for dealing with planning, social welfare, industrial development, monetary policy, regulation of income and wages, etc., cannot be said to be anything less than that required for the management of large industrial or commercial establishments. If the Government is to continue indefinitely to have an administratively complex combination of the role of regulator, developer, promoter and owner, as they are at present, talent will be required by Government in considerable measure. Therefore, the view appears to be that state sector will have to claim a substantial share of high level talent for its personnel.

Policy to acquire necessary complement

There are various alternatives available to government for ensuring that it gets its due share. On the one extreme the Government can decide to act like a private employer and pay individuals according to the market price determined by free forces of supply and demand. On the other extreme, it may adopt such measures that its own requirements are met regularly under compulsion, for example, by provision of compulsory service in necessary areas. Such powers have already been taken by Government in engineering and medical fields in relation to employment connected with the defence.

The third alternative is that the Government enters the skill market but imposes certain limitations on emoluments which any employer can pay to an individual—thus enforcing fair relativity with the level of remuneration in Government.

There are limitations to all these approaches. For obvious reasons compulsion cannot but be of limited applicability in a mixed economy. Also, there appear to be certain difficulties in entering an unregulated market. For example,

- (1) Government cannot afford to change its bid at a very short notice as a private employer ;
- (2) change at any one point may have far-reaching effects on the internal consistency of the vast state sector which cannot be disturbed beyond a point ; and
- (3) the Government, in a planned economy, directs the broad social policy and in its turn has to abide by the policies so formulated.

One view, therefore, is that the state cannot depend on the vagaries of employment market to determine the incomes policy and has to take a conscious decision regarding the minimum and the maximum remuneration.

Remuneration at lower levels

The Second Pay Commission had examined this question in great detail and reached the conclusion that :

“the minimum wage or salary should not be determined merely on economic considerations, but should satisfy also a social test—both because of its intrinsic validity and because of its bearing on efficiency. We have come to the further conclusion that even above the minimum

level Government should remunerate their employees fairly : for those who serve the State, as well as others, are entitled to fair wages." (p. 24)

The principle as enunciated seems to be unexceptionable and may perhaps be reiterated.

Remuneration at higher levels

The Second Pay Commission observed that "a combination of social and economic considerations is appropriate also in the determination of highest salaries". The Commission continued :

"We are definitely of the view that it would be completely wrong to think of emoluments of public servants in terms of those of the highest incomes in the professions or the higher incomes in business and industry. There are risks in professional, business and industrial careers from which careers in the public service are free ; and those who choose security may not reasonably aspire to the glittering prizes open to persons who take risks." (p. 85)

Further,

"There is the honour and the prestige—somewhat attenuated in recent years but still considerable ; and there are opportunities for full and continuous use of talent, and for the exercise of influence in the shaping of public policies and programmes. To many on the eve of selecting a career, the public service appears to stand out among salaried employments because those who enter it are servants of the public, not of individuals, and accountable ultimately to the supreme constituted authority in the country. We have no doubt that these non-economic conditions impart to the public service an attractiveness which is present now, and which will continue unless the gap between the emoluments of public servants and those available to persons with comparable talents and qualifications in other walks of life, in particular, in salaried appointments, is very wide."

There can perhaps be no question about the importance of intangible rewards of a public service career and that the public service required certain human qualities and acceptance of a scale of values with which the mere pursuit of wealth is not

quite compatible. However, this premise would hold within certain limits. The Pay Commission accepted this and observed:

“We think, however, that it would be unrealistic, at the same time, to expect any class of employees—as distinguished from exceptional individuals—to give loyal and efficient service without remuneration on a scale bearing some relation to what persons with comparable qualifications and responsibilities are receiving in other employments, and sufficient to enable them to maintain a standard of living not conspicuously below that of other groups in the community with which they are socially linked. We have come to the conclusion that we would not be justified in suggesting a reduction of the salaries—for the highest grade officers.”

In the last few years, the salaries in public services have been and continue to be eroded by the rising prices. On the other hand, the rewards in the private sector—even apart from the considerations of risk—appear to have been reflecting the process of concentration of wealth and the general high profit rates accruing to that sector. This is true even for the medium sized industrial and commercial units which are now competing with Government for the scarce human resources. More often than not, a substantial part of the remuneration takes the shape of perquisites and the “expense account” is also well known. On the other hand, the prestige associated with the public service has also suffered to some extent and its attractiveness does not remain as high as one would wish it to be. Therefore, the “intangibles” of public service may no longer be decisive in the choice of employment.

Quality of recruits

A recent study in the quality of graduates taking the combined competitive examinations goes to confirm the above stipulation. Appendix B gives the response of first class candidates to the combined competitive examinations. There appears to be considerable fall in the number of first class candidates taking these examinations. There are 1.8 candidates for every post announced at these examinations although the total production of first class candidates has gone up. To what extent is the level of emoluments responsible for this is not clear,

though it appears to be an important reason. The Second Pay Commission had also considered the question of quality and they came to the conclusion : "on the whole, we consider that while the quality of recruits should be watched carefully—for, if the progressive fall in the proportion of first class graduates appearing at the examinations continues, there may be cause for concern—there is no reason to think *so far* that the highest services are not getting recruits of the requisite standard." They observed: "there should be no cause for anxiety so long as there are three candidates with first class for every vacancy and the examination results should now show a fall in the level of performance." The actual figure has gone below this mark.

The analysis appears to be pointing in the direction of the desirability of Government making its bid competitive to attract the requisite talent. But immediately the question of compatibility of this suggestion with our basic frame specially the income structure of the community as a whole is raised. Here a real dilemma arises. The following are the relevant points to be taken into account :

- (1) A reasonable lower wage limit has not been achieved for the entire state sector as yet—even marginal adjustment at the lower levels is likely to be very costly. (Appendix C).
- (2) There are vast imbalances in the internal relativity and a very large sector of public service appears to be struggling to gain its due level even within the present frame, e.g., the employers of local bodies and state governments in general and those working in traditional departments in particular. Even a modest step towards a reasonable state of internal balance may be quite costly.
- (3) This step may further accentuate the inequalities.
- (4) There may be more than proportionate increase in the emoluments in the private sectors because :
 - (a) the relevant group is comparatively small ;
 - (b) they are not committed to maintaining a balance between the minimum and the maximum; and
 - (c) many of them operate in field where additional costs can be easily passed on to the consumer.
- (5) This step in the context of low level of the average

income and sluggish growth rate would ultimately mean a dent in the share of low income groups.

These conditions, it is argued, therefore, appear to lead to the conclusion that a fair relativity can be maintained only by suitable regulation of incomes in the private sector.

But there is another side to the regulation of income in the private sector. There are numerous administrative and socio-psychological difficulties involved. This approach is said to be not in the larger interests of the country. It will encounter not only the very real and insuperable administrative difficulties in enforcing the maximum, but also that such a step will definitely impede the very process of economic development. In the context of mixed economy, incentives in the form of higher rewards particularly in areas requiring considerable entrepreneurial risk-bearing talent are highly relevant and inescapable. The amount of high quality administrative manpower that we have is not unlimited and should be fully utilised by drawing the best from them by adequate incentives. Furthermore, implementation of such a policy is likely to create new opportunities for corruption.

There is no denying the fact that the administrative difficulties are really stupendous and incentives do play an important role. But the other side suggests that it is the relative differences in emoluments that are important and not the absolute differences. Even for rapid economic development, a climate of austerity is supposed to be necessary such as to press all available resources into productive effort.

One thing is clear that there is no alternative to ensuring fair relativity. Which approach should be adopted is the question to be answered: still higher salaries in the state sector or imposing limitations on the private sectors?

Differential between the maximum and the minimum

If the Conference is of the view that the higher salaries are to be determined on the principle of free competition in employment market and the lower ones on principle of a fair living wage, the differential will be a function of various forces and cannot be a pre-determined quantity. The indications are that it may decrease, though slowly, and over a pretty long period.

The other view, however, could be that some positive measures should be taken to decrease the existing differential.

It is held that although rising cost of living and union activity at the lower level is pushing up the minimum still there is no national minimum as such for the entire state sector. Even today there may be local bodies and State Governments where the minimum of the salary may be less than, say, Rs 75 p.m. The Government had informally put a ceiling of Rs 3,000 p.m. for its higher civil servants till recently, but this has now been raised to Rs 3,500 p.m. In the public sector enterprises it is Rs 4,000 and may be raised further in response to the principle of payment according to market conditions. The process of bridging the gap has received a set-back to some extent if the entire state sector is kept in view.

The question to be considered now is the extent of differential which we can afford at the present moment. One view may be that a maximum differential of 25 times may be imposed immediately which should be progressively reduced to 20 times and even less. As a first step, the highest salaries could be brought down to Rs 2,500 and thereafter progressively to a figure of Rs 2,000 p.m. So far as the minimum is concerned, a national minimum be fixed, say, at Rs 75, which should progressively be increased to Rs 100 p.m. Further narrowing of the disparities may be left to the long-term process of evolution of pay policies of Government in particular and the incomes policy of the nation as a whole in general.

But the lowering of the present maximum has drawbacks already indicated before. And the raising of the minimum will entail heavy—very heavy financial commitments. What then shall we do?

Internal relativity

Issues:

(1) *Relativity within the state sector*

To what extent should Government seek to provide comparability in pay amongst the employees of the Union, the States, the local bodies and quasi-government organisations?

- (i) Reasons for the differences and to what extent they are justified;
- (ii) Can the basic principle of "equal pay for equal

work" be applied to the entire state sector? If yes, what are the operational details for the same?

(2) *Relativity within the same organisation*

How can Government best provide differentials in pay for different levels within the same administrative unit or hierarchy?

Relativity within the state sector

If we view the state sector as a whole, there are a number of sub-units comprising this sector, namely, the Central Government, State Governments, local bodies, public sector enterprises, research, teaching and welfare institutions, etc. Even within the same organisation like the Central Government, there are different units like the Central Secretariat, the various field organisations, etc., which are distinguishable from each other for the purposes of pay policy. The question of emoluments in these different units, if viewed from the organisations' stand, would be of external relativity but from the point of the Government sector, the same question is one of internal relativity.

One striking feature of the present pay policy is that the quantum of pay or the terms and conditions of employment are to a very large extent determined by the capacity of the employing agency to pay. Thus, the Central Government generally has the highest level of emoluments; the public sector undertakings are, however, sometimes ahead of them and provide even better opportunities. At the other end are the local bodies whose financial position is generally not good and who have to be contented with rather low level.

The second factor which is responsible for divergence in emoluments is that each individual organisation adopts the standard of its headquarter town for all its sub-units scattered throughout its jurisdiction notwithstanding the regional differences (the entire country in the case of Central Government organisations, the State boundaries in the case of State Government organisation, etc.). Thus, New Delhi sets the standard for level of emoluments of all Central Government employees. The emoluments in Delhi are influenced by the general working conditions in the city, supply and demand positions in various skills, the terms and conditions of employment in private

organisations in Delhi and also, to some extent, on the pressures which an interest group is able to exert on authorities which matter. Similarly, the level of remuneration of State Government employees is determined by conditions prevailing in the capital town of each State.

There is yet another genre of anomalies which has arisen as a result of salary determination following fads and fashions of the day. In the process departments generally performing traditional functions, for example, police and revenue, are said to lag behind. The lowest responsible officials in these departments who come in touch with the public very intimately are the Sub-Inspectors and Naib-Tehsildars. The pay scale of Sub-Inspector in some States may be in the neighbourhood of Rs 150—250. On the other hand, personnel in quite a few new departments with much "less" responsibilities are treated more liberally.

The question, therefore, arises how is the motto of "equal pay for equal work", which is accepted in principle to be made applicable to the entire country. What practical shape can this abstract principle be given, what are the likely difficulties in its achievement and how can they be solved?

A country-wide agitation for equal D.A. is already afoot. With the increasing activities of the Central Government in a large number of sectors, personnel belonging to the Central Government and to other organisations in the state sector will have occasion to work side by side in much larger numbers. This problem has to be faced objectively backed by careful deliberation. It appears to be inevitable that jobs having similar valuation under any organisation in the state sector should have equal remuneration.

If this is accepted, it appears to be necessary to define as many variable co-efficients of a job-situation as possibly can be standardised. For example, the City Compensatory Allowance as at present meets but a part of the added cost of city dwellers. As one goes higher up in the scale of pay, the compensation is almost insignificant. If the principle of compensating higher costs in cities is accepted, its full logic must be recognised. One solution is that a national wage-level for the entire country should be worked out. To this may be added other components like regional components, locational components, backward area

allowance, educational allowance, etc. For example, the regional component may be worked out on the basis of regional cost of living. A "locational component" within the same region may be evolved for urban and semi-urban areas. For the purposes of regional indices a State or a group of States may be treated as one unit. "Locational" indices may be worked out for groups of cities on the basis of their population or any other objectively evolved criteria. Similarly, an educational allowance could be given to those working in backward areas depending on the number of children. This will reduce the unattractiveness of unfavourable postings.

The above suggestion would require a continuous process of evaluation. A high powered Central Pay Research Unit, would appear to be necessary to carry on the evaluation and provide necessary data for salary administration.

Relativity within the same organisation

The paper on position classification will deal with the question of relativity of pay within an organisation. Given the highest and the lowest levels, the problem is to determine the criteria which should be taken into account for determining the relative distance which should be reflected in the emoluments of each position. The guiding principles for determination of the position values of different levels could be :

- (1) the basic educational requirements;
- (2) levels of proficiency requirement within the concerned speciality;
- (3) level of responsibility; and
- (4) working conditions.

In such a job evaluation, no cut and dry formula for assignment of weights to different factors appears to be possible. The relative weight of individual factors may vary from position to position. For example, in general administration hierarchy, educational qualifications would be important for differentiation between, say, a peon and a clerk, at lower levels. But at a somewhat higher level of assistant and a section officer, the educational qualifications are the same and it will have the same weight. Differentiation, however, arises because of different levels of proficiency requirements—any graduate may work as an assistant but only comparatively brighter one can at the section

officer's level. At yet higher levels, the deciding factor may be the level of responsibility. Subjective elements would play a role even in assignments of weights at the various levels. However, as the lowest and the highest levels are fixed, this criterion, supplemented with the personal judgment of those who know, may provide a good enough base for objective evaluation of the position values.

*Minimum and maximum vertical distance
between two consecutive levels*

The next question is about the design of the possible distinguishable levels in an hierarchy. It is said that a difference of the order of 15 to 20 per cent in total position values of two consecutive levels may be practicable. Any attempt to establish smaller differences is costly and not much fruitful. Similarly, it may not be desirable to group positions differing by more than a pre-determined level, say, 25 per cent or so. If position values differing by more than this figure are grouped together, individuals doing substantially different work would get equal remuneration. The present salary structure suffers from this defect. Take the case of a typical hierarchy of Collector and Deputy Collector. In many States, there is no intermediate grade and thus the two consecutive grades are Rs. 900—1800 and Rs. 350—900. The mean value of the first is more than twice that of the second. But it is well known that there are positions of intermediate responsibility. If a P.C.S. officer is doing that job, he is underpaid but if an IAS officer is doing the same job, he is overpaid. On the other hand, sometimes there are levels differing by as little as 5-7 per cent as in the case of Assistant Engineers in the grade Rs. 350—900 and Assistant Executive Engineers in Rs. 400—950. It appears impracticable to distinguish between two levels with such refinement and thus the same job gets paid differently.

It is, however, suggested that this 15-25 per cent differentiation limit cannot be absolute specially at the upper end. For ensuring flexibility in the use of personnel, broader salary hands may be necessary specially at those levels where the job-valuation is bound to be subjective and the very job-content may change with the incumbent of the position. If so, there should be a conscious decision to this effect.

The variation of pay of an individual with time, the job remaining the same

Issues :

- (1) Basic considerations for determining the length of a pay scale :
 - (a) increase in pay with increasing efficiency ;
 - (b) keeping employee interested in work ;
 - (c) increasing pay packet with increasing personal and social responsibility ;
- (2) The quantum of rate of increment—whether fixed ratio at all levels or varying ratio for different levels.
- (3) Frequency of the steps :
 - (a) whether annual, two-yearly, three-yearly ;
 - (b) the criteria for grant of increments ;
 - (c) efficiency bars ;
- (4) Overlapping or non-overlapping scales.

Basic considerations for determining the length of pay-scales

The present time scale system of pay can be said to have begun with the recommendations of Islington Commission (1912-15), and is an end product of evolution for the last fifty years. The two Pay Commissions contributed considerably to their final form.

The First Pay Commission made a distinction between an entry grade and a promotion grade. They were of the opinion that a long time scale was suitable for an entry grade and a short one for a promotion grade. Also, they observed that the principle of long pay scale should not apply to grades at the bottom of the public service where the work was of the kind which did not improve in quality with lapse of time. The Second Pay Commission adopted similar approach to the problem but they took a somewhat different view regarding the lowest grade of employees. They thought that although the work of great majority of them was not capable of continuous improvement, it was capable of deterioration if there were no economic incentives to keep the employee interested in his work. They, therefore, recommended a somewhat longer scale for the lowest employees as well. Even otherwise they were generally in favour of longer scale. According to them "it may be desirable

to have a comparatively longer scale for an entry grade in order to accommodate the employee who does not develop potentially to justify promotion but who nevertheless continues to perform useful, if relatively simple, duties”.

Thus the principle of a long pay scale seems to have been supported on two grounds :

- (1) It provides a built-in mechanism to remunerate at a higher rate with the increased usefulness of an employee to Government with longer experience ; and
- (2) It keeps an employee interested in his work by providing monetary incentive.

There is yet another objective which is not always specifically recognised. An individual should be provided with bigger pay packet as his personal and social responsibilities increase with age. Perhaps, in the Indian context this is the most important factor. Government employment is likely to be a life long profession for a vast majority of its employees. In the deteriorating employment situation, there is little chance of finding a better paying position. Also if the turnover in Government services is as low as the present level, no organisational structure may be able to provide even one-step promotion to an average employee. Thus it is suggested that in the absence of appreciable turnover, in the context of a socialistic and forward looking personnel policy a *career* time scale would appear to be necessary for civil servants at all the levels from the lowest to the top.

It may now be considered whether it is possible to distinguish between entry scales and promotion scales and if yes, to what extent? There are some departments like police which have, and may continue to have, only a basic general education requirement for entry at various levels. Such departments can afford to have well-defined entry and promotion levels. Other departments, which are increasing in number, like engineering and medicine, are more and more relying on institutionally produced skills for jobs at various levels. Institutions are set up for producing any skill which may have sizable demand and thus provide ready-made personnel for appropriate levels. Consideration of incentive may necessitate an element of promotion as well. Thus it may not be possible to earmark these levels as promotion or entry level.

The above position generally holds good for lower and middle levels. For higher levels, departmental experience may continue to be a valuable and essential pre-requisite. But even here the opinion appears to be in favour of a greater doze of lateral entry from non-governmental sectors. In technical fields, such entry may soon assume an appreciable scale.

For the purposes of pay policy, there is a qualitative difference between lateral entry at the higher levels and at other levels. At higher levels, only personnel with previous experience may enter and will thus belong to the same age group as the promotees. For both groups, the pay scales could be designed as if they are promotion levels. On the other hand, direct entrants at middle and lower levels fresh from technical institutes will be entering a career for the first time and be generally younger to the promotees. Therefore, these grades cannot be treated as promotion grades and will have to be designed as if they are entry levels. The conclusion, therefore, appears to be that in many departments all scales up to a pre-determined level may have to be designed as entry scales and higher ones as promotion grades.

Number of steps and quantum of increment

The number of steps in the present pay structure vary from level to level (Appendix D). If the primary consideration for the length of scale is personal and social responsibility and continued interest in work, the number should be uniform for all *entry* grades. They could be, say, 20 or 22, so that an individual gets through annual increments the maximum by about the time his responsibilities are the maximum. If this position is accepted, the point of comparison of any two scales for the purpose of their position values should be the mean of the grade. The spread on both sides of this point may be interpreted as the employee being paid more than his due in the later half and less than his due in the first half of his career.

Appendix D also brings out that not only does the quantum of increment vastly differs from level to level, it is different even in relative terms (*i.e.*, increment as a ratio of the mean or minimum of a salary scale). The question, therefore, is whether there is any justification for these differences. Perhaps in the light of what has been said about the entry scales, there does

not appear to be a case for such vast differentials. The average increment may perhaps bear the same ratio to the maximum or the mean of the scales at all levels except the purely promotion grades.

Frequency of increments

The increments in a pay scale may be annual, two-yearly, three-yearly or of indefinite frequency. Increments could be given automatically or be made subject to conditions of minimum standard performance. In the present structure increments are annual and automatic; they can be stopped if performance is not satisfactory. In fact, stoppage of increments is one of the punishments. If increments are to serve the purpose of keeping the interest of employee in his job, it appears that the increments must be "earned". But if each yearly increment is subject to detailed assessment of performance, the assessment is likely to become routine and the real purpose of efficiency check may be lost. Therefore, the frequency for assessment may be lower, say, five yearly so that it is done thoroughly and over a length of time. The increment could, therefore, continue to be annual and automatic as at present but introduction of more numerous efficiency bars, say, every four or five years may be considered.

Overlapping or non-overlapping scales

The present pay structure has overlapping pay scale at the lower and middle levels and non-overlapping scales at the highest levels (Appendix D). Should all scales at the lower and the middle levels also be non-overlapping? It appears that the overlap is unavoidable unless we reconcile to having either a very small number of pay scales or to the span of each scale being very small. To illustrate the possible non-overlapping scales covering the range, say, from Rs. 75 to Rs. 1000 (the upper point of middle level) the three alternatives on different premises are given :

Non-overlapping scales Rs. 75-1000

(A) fixed Maximum- Minimum Ratio	(B) Mean value of consecutive scales differing by 25%	(C) An <i>ad hoc</i> structure
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(i) Rs. 75—150

(i) Rs. 75—90

(i) Rs. 75—95

(Contd.)

(Contd.)

(ii) Rs. 150— 300	(ii) Rs. 90— 115	(ii) Rs. 95— 140
(iii) Rs. 300— 600	(iii) Rs. 115— 145	(iii) Rs. 140— 240
(iv) Rs. 600—1200	(iv) Rs. 145— 180	(iv) Rs. 240— 500
	(v) Rs. 180— 225	(v) Rs. 500— 800
	(vi) Rs. 225— 280	(vi) Rs. 800—1200
	(vii) Rs. 280— 340	
	(viii) Rs. 340— 440	
	(ix) Rs. 440— 550	
	(x) Rs. 550— 690	
	(xi) Rs. 690— 850	
	(xii) Rs. 850—1100	

It is obvious that 'A' provides too few scales.

Even 'C' has a rather small number. If it is noted that 98.6 per cent employees are below Rs. 500, it will mean fixing all of them in three or four scales. This will result in :

- (1) Posts carrying dissimilar responsibilities being grouped in one scale as the mean difference of two consecutive scales is very large ;
- (2) Promotion opportunities being extremely restricted at the lower levels ; and
- (3) The financial burden on the public exchequer being very heavy.

In the event of adopting Scheme "B" the number of scales is larger but their length is too short. They will hardly provide any incentive to an individual employee in the form of regular increment. Also the principle of increasing pay with increasing responsibilities of the individual will be violated.

Therefore, it appears that at the lower and the Middle levels entry pay scales have to be overlapping. The overlap, however, should be scientifically planned. The mean difference between two scales may be a fixed ratio of the minimum and the average number of steps may be the same at every level. The following is an illustrative structure :

- (1) Rs. 75—3—105—5—153
- (2) Rs. 85—4—125—6—173
- (3) Rs. 100—4—140—7—196
- (4) Rs. 115—5—165—8—229

- (5) Rs. 135—6—195—10—275
- (6) Rs. 160—8—240—12—336
- (7) Rs. 190—9—280—15—400
- (8) Rs. 225—11—335—16—463
- (9) Rs. 260—13—390—20—550
- (10) Rs. 300—15—450—25—650
- (11) Rs. 350—17—520—30—760
- (12) Rs. 400—20—600—35—880
- (13) Rs. 450—25—700—35—980

As the higher levels are mostly promotion levels, there could be some non-overlapping shorter scales of pay.

Training grades

At present in a number of services junior scales of pay are treated as training grades ; officers are recruited against senior duty posts which carry a different and higher scale. The Second Pay Commission merged the two scales in case of a large number of non-technical central services building in the combined scale a provision for automatic lift after specified number of years' service. There appears to be no ground for distinction between a training grade and a substantive grade as for example, in the case of Assistant Engineers and Assistant Executive Engineers in a number of departments or the junior time scale officers and senior class II officers in many departments. The pay scale of substantive working grade of any post perhaps may be given even to trainees for higher jobs. Their elevation to the higher levels may be provided for in the terms and conditions of their service under which they may start in a lower scale, continue for some time there and move on to a higher scale after specified time. The elevation need not necessarily be to the next consecutive scale; one, two or more jumps may be built in for recruits of higher services according to the level of their normal career grades.

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR PAY POLICY

- (1) Agency for dealing with pay policies ;
- (2) Research in pay policies and trends in employment market;
- (3) Role of pay commissions;

- (4) Association of employees in matters concerning pay policies.

Agency for pay policies

Although the two Pay Commissions have talked about the principles of relativity, fair wage and there has been considerable public discussion of the level of remuneration of government servants, yet there is no satisfactory institutional arrangement for considering questions of pay policy. The entire field of pay policies, therefore, has been left open to operation of pressure groups and free play of agitational approach. The present day conditions clearly show an almost chaotic situation. Decisions are, therefore, taken on an *ad hoc* basis and internal and external relativity has now become so distorted that differentials in pay scales no longer represent the "real" difference in the level of positions. It appears that the importance of the powerful instrument of bargaining under pressure has been realised by every group which can muster strength. It appears that if the situation is not tackled objectively, it will become much worse. So far the only measures taken to correct the variety of imbalances, is appointment of Pay Commissions or Committees. They suddenly come into existence, gather all the materials which they can, conduct necessary studies, hold interviews and make recommendations within a short span of a year or two. The task before such Pay Commissions or Committees is so stupendous and the pressure so acute (because it is as a result of these pressures that these Committees come into being) that it is hardly possible for them to do justice to the entire question of pay policies which they are supposed to formulate. It appears, therefore, that a stage has come when there should be some permanent organisation which looks into the question of pay policies on a continuous basis. This organisation could be in the Central Personnel Agency which may be charged with the function of laying down broad policies in the area of Pay Administration.

Research in pay policies

There is also a need for basic research in pay policies, trends in employment market, etc. A Pay Research Unit has been established recently in the Ministry of Finance as a result of the recommendations of the Second Pay Commission but its

scope is rather narrow. This Unit should be strengthened and its scope of work enlarged.

Role of pay commission

There also appears to be a case for regularity in the frequency in the appointment of Pay Commission. It may be once in ten years or so. One view is that they should not be saddled with the responsibility of reaching down to details as was the case with the earlier Pay Commissions. They should be asked to go into a number of key questions and all follow up and detailed work should be undertaken by the Central Personnel Agency with the help of the permanent Pay Research Unit.

Association of employees

This arrangement would increase the usefulness of Pay Commissions, give a purposeful direction to pay policies and provide for continuing attention to pay problems. One further point needs consideration. If the Pay Research Unit's findings are going to guide the pay policies of Government, they must also inspire confidence in the employees, the second interested party. Their association with its management and working would, therefore, be useful.

To recapitulate, the Conference may focus attention on the following questions :

- (1) What is the desirable level of the share of State sector in the common pool of talent in the country?
- (2) What should be its policy to acquire the necessary complement of talent (a) at lower levels, and (b) at higher levels?
- (3) What should be the appropriate differential between the maximum and the minimum salaries in the State sector?
- (4) To what extent should Government seek to provide comparability in pay amongst the employees of the Union, the States, the local bodies and quasi-government organisations? If the basic principle of 'equal pay for equal work' is applied to the entire State sector throughout the country, what should be the operational details for the same?
- (5) How best can Government provide differentials in

pay for different levels within the same administrative unit or hierarchy?

- (6) What should be the basic considerations for determining the length of pay scales?
- (7) What principles should be adopted for determining the rate of increments and the number of steps between the maximum and the minimum?
- (8) What should be the frequency of increments, the criteria for the grant of increments?
- (9) What should be the overall structure of pay scales in Government?
- (10) Should there be a provision of special training grades in certain services?
- (11) What should be the institutional arrangements for attending to the broad questions of pay policy ?

Employment by Sectors : 1961-1966

March of	State Sector	Private Sector	Percentage change over the previous year	
			State	Private
(in lakhs)				
1961	70.5	50.4
1962	74.2	51.6	5.2	2.4
1963	79.5	54.6	7.1	5.8
1964	84.5	57.8	6.3	5.9
1965	89.6	60.4	6.0	4.5
1966	93.6	61.0	4.5	1.0
Total growth				
per cent	32.8	21.0		
Average annual				
growth rate				
per cent	6.6	4.2		

Source : Employment Review 1961-66.

*Response of First Classes to the Combined Competitive
Examination (comparative position)
1950-55 and 1960-64*

Year	No. of First Class graduates produced	No. of First Class graduates who took the Combined Competitive examination	No. of vacancies in the All India & Central Class-I (non-technical) Services	Proportion of First Classes taking the examination to the total	No. of First Classes competing for each vacancy
1	2	3	4	5	6
(1950-55)					
1950	1475	448	167	1 in 3	2.7
1951	1530	528	176	1 in 3	3
1952	1728	525	167	1 in 3	3
1953	1960	530	168	1 in 4	3
1954	2199	607	161	1 in 3.5	3.7
1955	2553	636	247	1 in 4	2.1
Total	11445	3324	1086		
Average	1907	554	181	1 in 3.25	3
(1960-64)					
1960	7370	749	273	1 in 9	2.7
1961	7526	712	328	1 in 10	2
1962	8594	630	318	1 in 13	2
1963	6491	480	363	1 in 13	1.3
1964	9333	457	385	1 in 20	1.2
Total	139314	3028	1667		
Average	7863	605	333	1 in 13	1.8

First Class refers to Class obtained at the highest degree.

Source : Ministry of Home Affairs and Union Public Service Commission.

*Distribution of Central Government Employees by Pay-ranges
(regular staff)*

Pay-ranges (Rs.)	31st March, 1964		31st March, 1965	
	No. of employees	Percentage to total	No. of employees	Percentage to total
1	2	3	4	5
Below — 75	4,22,301	17.8	4,81,037	19.9
75— 99	8,48,792	35.8	8,39,107	34.7
100— 149	5,32,849	22.4	5,21,496	21.6
150— 199	3,20,368	13.5	3,13,021	12.9
200— 299	1,51,412	6.4	1,60,464	6.6
300— 399	45,167	1.9	48,141	2.0
400— 499	22,115	0.9	22,950	0.9
500— 749	17,027	0.7	19,069	0.8
750— 999	6,669	0.3	7,554	0.3
1000—1499	4,523	0.2	4,886	0.2
1500—1999	1,199		1,196	
2000—2499	449		476	
2500—2999	82	0.1		0.1
3000 and above	139		150	
TOTAL :	23,73,092	100.0	24,19,653	100.0

Report-5

Source : Census of Central Government Employees—1965.

Directorate General of Employment and Training, Ministry of
Labour, Employment and Rehabilitation.

Analysis of a typical pay structure

Grade	Minimum	Maximum	Length of scale Yrs.	Average increment as per cent of the minimum.
L. D. C. (Secretariat)	110	180	19	3.5
U. D. C. (Secretariat)	180	280	21	5.4
Assistants	210	530	22	7.0
Section Officer—				
Promotee	400	900	17	7.5
Direct Recruit	350	900	19	8.5
Under Secretary	900	1250	7	5.6
Deputy Secretary	1100	1800	11	5.8

Training And Career Development

This paper will focus attention on three major topics: (a) the general need for formal training throughout the public service if the public service as a whole should function more effectively, (b) the approach to the training—initial as well as mid-career—of recruits to the various class I “Services” of Government, and (c) the need for special training for those who are to man higher administrative positions.

GENERAL

What is training ?

Training is the process of aiding employees to become effective in their present and future work by inculcating appropriate habits of thought and action and by the development of the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes. This definition embraces all public servants irrespective of the level at which they are employed and of the nature of the work that they perform. The public service in India at the Centre and in the States is so vast and composed of such immense diversity of people and activity that this paper cannot do more than attempt to suggest guidelines for the approach to training and indicate the specific sectors of the public service on which emphasis may be laid.

Training in the present context

The age-old practice of training was by learning on the job through apprenticeship. This was not only a long-drawn process but an imperfect one as well. It suited a time and an environment when the pace of Government was leisurely and when the primary object of the public service was to collect taxes, maintain law and order and a communications and transport system with the overall purpose of stabilising the foreign power and strengthening its hold. The role that Government has taken on itself after Independence, especially in the realm of development and social services has imposed new and varied tasks on the public service. In addition to the traditional tasks, public servants today are called upon to deal with new areas,

such as foreign relations, agriculture, commerce, industry, social welfare and a host of other promotional activities, all directed towards rapid development. All these new tasks have to be performed in a world which is changing rapidly, economically, scientifically, socially and politically. The traditional method of training on the job cannot meet the urgent requirements of a developing situation and the complexity of a rapidly changing scene. It is essential to equip every public servant with the skills and the knowledge needed for discharging his function efficiently; in other words, to give him formal training for his job.

The variety of functions performed by the public service and the wide range of skills which need to be imparted through training do not permit of a comprehensive coverage of the whole field in this short paper. It is, therefore, proposed to emphasise the importance of general training needs at all levels and refer, in a little more detail, to the training needs of the administrative managerial levels of the public service.

TRAINING NEEDS OF THE LOWER LEVELS OF PUBLIC SERVICE

Levels in the public service

For various purposes the public service has been divided into four classes: class I, class II, class III and class IV. The class I services are generally concerned with higher positions of administrative responsibility in various functional areas. But they constitute less than two per cent of the total. It is the vast number of others who constitute the bulk of the public service which is engaged in the 'doing' of a myriad specific tasks at the "cutting edge" level of administration whether it be mob control, collection of taxes or statistics, manning of a public utility service, handling of material, auditing, postal, telegraph and telephone operations, etc.

Training at levels below class I

At these levels the primary need is to equip the public servant adequately to perform the specific tasks expected of him. The quality of his performance will depend, to a large extent, on how well he knows his job and how well he is motivated to perform it. Training is the most potent means of increasing

the effectiveness of the public servant and his usefulness to Government. There has been some recognition of this fact in the post-Independence years. This period has seen considerable expansion of training facilities all over the country. However, can it be said that the effort has been adequate ?

Expenditure on training of public servants has been estimated at about 0.4 per cent of the wage bill of the public service. The Hoover Commission which made a survey of the American public service a decade ago, recommended that training expenditure should not be less than one per cent of the wage bill. In the Indian situation where the pre-entry educational quality of the public servant is not as good as it is in U.S.A., an outlay of even one per cent would be inadequate. The present outlay, therefore, leaves much room for expansion. Willingness to make adequate outlays on training will come only if there is a general awareness and acceptance of the crucial importance of training for public servants. Training is a good investment in human resource development which is bound to yield dividends in terms of better administration.

Evolution of training programmes

But enhanced allocation of resources will not be enough. Training needs will have to be identified for each category or cadre of employees, training material will need to be assembled and organised, new training techniques will have to be developed, and organisational arrangements for imparting training formalised. Recently the Union Government have established a training Division which is to function as a focal point for coordination of training policies and programmes. Similar arrangements may also need to be made in the states, and existing departmental agencies engaged on training, strengthened considerably.

As already stated we may not get involved in the details of how this training will need to be organised. The Conference may focus attention on the following question.

Should formal training be imparted to all *levels of public servants* and for this purpose the resource allocation increased to 1 per cent of the wage bill and proper institutional arrangements made for training?

TRAINING OF THE CLASS I SERVICES

Reasons for emphasis

This part of the public service is composed of a wide variety of personnel ranging from diplomats and district officers to research scientists and technicians falling into two broad classifications: technical and non-technical or "specialist" and "generalist". In the tradition of the supermacy of the "generalist" which still prevails in our country, it is "generalists" much more than "specialist" who today occupy higher administrative positions. But we do have a large variety of "specialists", with the possible exception of those engaged in pure research, who are concerned with management or administration in addition to other functional subject-matter responsibilities. Though the Class I segment of the public service forms less than 2 per cent of the whole, its importance is out of all proportion to the numbers, for on its competence and calibre depend, to a large extent, the efficiency, vitality and morale of government agencies. The emphasis in this paper is, therefore, on the training needs of these Class I Services.

*Approach to the training of class I services
(including All India Services)*

The approach to the training of this level of public servants will have to be two-fold: one to train them in the subject matter speciality with which they would be wholly concerned in the initial years of their career and secondly to train them in management/administration. The second has equal importance because not only do these persons perform some managerial/administrative functions early in their career in their own specific area of operation, but they are expected to provide the personnel for staffing of higher administrative positions. This is important. The qualities and attributes required in the higher administrative positions will, therefore, determine the training plan as much as the need to equip the new recruits adequately to the immediate tasks ahead. The initial training will have to take into account the fact that many of the personnel being trained will in future man higher administrative positions. What are these higher administrative positions? For the purpose of this paper we will take the level of a Deputy

Secretary and above in the Union Government and comparable positions in the Union departments and the State Governments to constitute higher administrative positions. Let us examine briefly what types of personnel will be needed to man these higher administrative positions.

Shape of the higher administration

Till not so long ago the higher administrative positions in the country were manned almost entirely by the Indian Civil Service, whose members were "generalists". In the post-Independence era there has been a change in the pattern of staffing in this crucial area of administration under the impact of development and planning. Administration has become much more complex. The whole business of Government has been transformed by the scientific and technological revolution and by the deep involvement of the State in the economic process—through planning, through the complexities of the defence programme, through the growth of the public sector and through Government's vastly increased responsibility for promoting research and development. As a consequence, the need for supplementing but by no means supplanting the higher administrative capabilities of generalist by the expertise of the specialists has been felt and, to some extent, recognised. In the context of the increasing expansion and growing complexity of governmental functions this trend is likely to increase rather than diminish. If we can, therefore, visualise the shape of the higher administrative positions in the near future, it will most probably be a picture of a group drawn from diverse sources, represented by the non-technical as well as the technical services. The training of the Class I Services has, therefore, to take note of this emerging pattern of the higher administration.

Is this correct picture?

Some may question the accuracy of the picture that has been drawn. Would it not suffice to man the higher administration entirely by generalists, while the specialists play the complementary role of giving expert advice? In other words, should the generalist administrator not continue to be at the top and be responsible for policy and management, while the specialist can remain on tap for advice, etc. This notion had strongly

influenced the practice which prevailed in U.K. till recently. But the trend has changed even in that country and there is increasing recognition that such an arrangement will not lead to effective administration. The arrangement of the generalist being on top and the specialist on tap is not being felt as an effective one. A feeling is growing that it is not enough to have one's experts hidden away in the back room, available to answer question from non-technical civil servants. It is not enough because it is said, too often generalists, do not know the right questions to ask and cannot understand the answers they get. There appears to be, therefore, need for an integration of the "specialist" and the "generalist" concept in higher administrative positions. There is also a human aspect to this classic dilemma which the following incident sums up succinctly. Recently Dean Bailey of the Maxwell School of Administration, Syracuse (N. Y.), addressed a gathering at the I.I.P.A. He was asked why the specialist should not reconcile himself to the complementary though subordinate role of advice to the administrator without aspiring to be an administrator himself? Dean Bailey said: "The answer is simple. Every one wants to prove his own manhood."

Experience : how far relevant and of what kind ?

The advocates of the generalists on "top" approach hold that the most important requisite for manning higher administrative positions is experience in a wide variety of jobs. But what about subject matter competence ? It may be good to know something (and that cannot be anything but little) of many things but what about knowing a lot of at least one thing ? And then experience, largely a matter of chance for most officers, does not dole out its favours equally. For many it may not even be cumulative but may only amount to nothing more than doing jobs in a given field reasonably well and perhaps making the same mistakes through sheer force of habit. Experience as such does not offer much scope for *growth* of the individual himself. Today the spirit of public administration, its objectives, mechanics and horizons keep changing constantly, calling for a higher and higher technical competence. The administrator must, therefore, be able to recognise the meaning of such changes and to respond to them.

His previous education and his initial training during the probationary period will not be adequate for all times. Mid-career training assumes importance in this context.

Initial training

We next deal with details of initial and mid-career training for this class.

Initial training of Class I Services (non-technical) in India is not a new practice. Since long, fresh recruits to the different Services have received training in institutions specially designed to cater to the requirements of each Service as a prelude to actual responsibility on the job. The National Academy of Administration at Mussoorie is the biggest institution of this kind. Special training institutions have been set up to train probationers to the Revenue, Audit and Accounts, Police, and Railway Services. Some of the States too have training schools for recruits to the Provincial Services and Madras has an elaborate on-the-job training programme for the I.A.S. probationers. The categories of Services which get initial training at the Mussoorie Academy have been described as the non-technical Services.

There are under the Central and the State Governments several technical services consisting of engineers, scientists, doctors, economists, statisticians and other specialists. The latter category does not receive institutional training of the type provided by the National Academy. In this connection it would be worthwhile to examine the content and intent of the training provided in the National Academy at Mussoorie. It would also be useful to compare our training practice with the practice in two foreign countries, namely, Britain and France. Britain has been chosen since our Service structure bears some resemblance to their own higher civil service. It is proposed to examine the French system also since France broke new ground in this field after World War II and the new system they have adopted has received laudatory notice from other administrations.

The British system

The class of the higher civil service in Britain which is in many ways comparable to the Class I Non-technical Services in

India is the Administrative Class. Till recently recruits to the Administrative Class in Britain received no institutional training whatsoever. They were directly posted to the different Ministries and Departments as Assistant Principals and were supposed to pick up the work of the administrator firstly by devilling for his superior, the Principal (a senior member of the same Administrative Class) and latter by taking actual charge of a range of duties in the Ministry. Following the Assheton Report in 1944 the British decided that this model of training was inadequate and proceeded to set up a Centre of Administrative Studies where Assistant Principals and others of similar rank would go for instruction for a few weeks on economics, statistics and management studies. The practice now is to begin by attaching the Assistant Principal to the Centre of Administrative Studies for a short period, which will serve not only for instruction but also as an induction to the civil service. Recently, there has been much thinking devoted to the needs of training of senior civil servants during mid-career in what has been called Management. But of this more later.

The French system

The French system of training the higher civil service differs from all others in two essential aspects : one is that the French have combined recruitment of the higher civil service and its initial training into a single process. The recruitment-cum-training programme is conducted by the National School of Administration over a period which extends to nearly three years. The second essential difference is that the French think that every member of the higher civil service, whatever be his area of activity—law and order, audit, management of social services or foreign affairs—should have an initial exposure to the administrative base of the country, *i. e.*, the Prefecture.

The non-technical part of the higher civil service in France is divided into five Grand Corps, namely, the Council of State, the Foreign Service, the Court of Accounts, the Inspectorate of Finances, and the Prefectorial Corps. These sections of the higher civil servants are destined to perform the varied functions which are indicated by their names. The French feel that it is necessary to expose all the higher services initially for a period of training in the field. This initial exposure

is not confined to that section, viz., the Prefectorial Corps which would later on be called upon to administer the "departments". (The Indian counterpart being the districts.) Thus all French recruits to the Grand Corp spend about one year initially under a Prefect. The aim of this training has been expressed by the Ecole Nationale de Administration in the following words:

"To broaden the minds of students by bringing them into contact with life, with concrete problems and with human and social environments which in many cases are quite foreign to them as a result of their origin, their jobs or their previous studies. The primary aim of this extramural training period is to develop the students' sense of humanity by giving them a feeling for life and reality, particularly social reality."

The training in the field is followed by a further two years of instruction in the school, which is based on the section to which the recruit will ultimately go.

The National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie

In India recruits to the higher non-technical* Services receive their initial foundational training in the National Academy of Administration at Mussoorie.

The course of training lasts for about five months. The trainees are given instruction in the Indian Constitution, governmental organisation, planning; a little of economics, a little of political theory, etc., through courses of lectures. The foundational course is also intended to achieve a correct orientation of the future higher public servant *vis a vis* the political executive and the citizen. It is supposed to provide for the correct attitude and the basic indoctrination for a public servant who has to function in a democratic set-up. It is also supposed to inculcate in him the spirit of service and bring about an awareness of not only the rights of the citizen but also a respect for his feelings. This foundational course has

* 1. Indian Administrative, 2. Indian Audit and Accounts, 3. Indian Defence Accounts, 4. Indian Foreign, 5. Indian Ordnance Factories (Non-technical), 6. Indian Police, 7. Indian Postal, 8. Indian Railway Accounts, 9. Indian Revenue, 10. The Central Information and, 11. Railway Traffic Services.

been in existence for about a decade. Informed opinion feels that the course has fallen short of its objectives.

Deficiencies of the foundational course

Perhaps, two deficiencies become immediately apparent in the foundational course : a lack of practical orientation, and the limitations of the lecture method. The training is largely an extension of the type of education available in the universities. In order to have the desired effect it would perhaps be desirable to inter-weave the existing foundational training with the performance of practical tasks. This would mean not only the lengthening of the course but also broadening its base. Is there a case for taking a leaf out of the French system and sending all the recruits for an initial exposure to local administrations ? Many observers feel that the French practice in this regard has yielded good results. In India the need for such an exposure has also been recognised in respect of the Indian Foreign Service, recruits to which spend some time in the districts after the foundational course. Persons belonging to the Selection Grade for the Central Secretariat Service who in the earlier years work only in the Central Secretariat are also deputed for district training. Therefore, the value of a brief exposure to local administration has been recognised, even though to a limited extent. It may perhaps be desirable to extend this principle to all the higher Services.

Training of the higher technical services

The technical Services, by and large, receive no training of the type we have so far dealt with. Except for those who are engaged in field of pure research or maintenance of intricate machinery, members of the higher technical Services are also concerned with practical administration on a large scale. Their contribution to development administration is vital. It may, therefore, be necessary to put the technical Services also through a similar foundational course.

The questions that arise for consideration are : Should all services (non-technical) be given an exposure to life at the grass-roots level and should technical services be given a foundational course of the type now given to non-technical Services in the National Academy ?

MID-CAREER TRAINING

We have sketched, in broad outline, the likely composition of the higher administrative positions in the near future. The approach to the earlier training of the Services which would feed these positions has been indicated with an eye on the future and anticipates the higher staffing policies.

The question that arises is whether any special training at all is necessary for the group of civil servants who graduate to higher administrative positions. It can be argued that after all such civil servants would be experienced, competent and successful in administration in their own fields and do not need any re-training. In the earlier pages this question has been partly answered. Experience is good and necessary but it is not enough. Administration is a complex affair today ; and those marked out to man, higher administrative positions need a re-orientation and a broadening of their perspective. This has been accepted in most modern countries. In U.S.A. the re-training takes the shape of "executive development programmes". In U.K. they call it "management training". The basic assumption in either country is that "management" comprises a whole range of skills necessary for running and controlling a large organisation. These include human qualities, such as leadership, a wide range of relevant knowledge varying according to the task in hand and a mastery of or at least acquaintance with quantitative techniques which would be necessary both for the purpose of day-to-day control and for helping in the making of major decisions. Those in middle management levels need to have an understanding of the contribution which economics and related disciplines make to the allocation of scarce resources and be made to realise the macro-economic environment within which all Government Departments operate. Furthermore, there should be an opportunity for study in depth of a number of aspects of government and public administration, and introduction to social administration, the study of organisation and management problems and for getting acquainted with scientific and technological developments. All this is necessary equipment of a higher administrator and special training is an important means of providing it.

Training needs in mid-career

Three specific areas of mid-career training can be identified and these will require slightly different approaches.

The first arises out of the need to increase the subject-matter competence of every higher civil servant and up-date his knowledge and functional skills necessary in his own field. For this purpose each Service would have to develop its own special training programmes and retain civil servants through appropriate refresher courses.

The second identifiable area pertains to those who will occupy higher administrative positions. Such training will be aimed at a crucial area of the higher administration and has, therefore, to be selective in regard to the trainees. The selection cannot be confined to any narrow section of the higher civil service, since the variegated composition of the higher administrative positions demands the presence of a wide range of skills. In order to be effective, the training course will have to be taken at a fairly young age when the powers of absorption and ability to react are still intact. An age group between 30 and 35 would be most suited from this angle. The selection process itself can take any one of the forms—Departmental Promotion Committees or examinations, or both—covering all the higher Services, technical and non-technical. The selection process will undoubtedly leave out many who will not get to the policy positions ; but they will continue their careers and advancement in their functional lines and will have to be trained for increasing their competence in those lines.

It is possible to see that a cleavage will occur within the age group of 30 and 35 between those who will be engaged in policy functions and those who will translate those policies in action. However, this need not be rigid and permanent and at the very top, say of the level of Joint Secretaries and above and their equivalents, in the field and the staff areas, there should be scope for cross-movement and at this level also there should be opportunities for training through refresher courses. This is the third identifiable area of mid-career training. The courses at this level will have to aim at contact among the governmental, the public and the private sectors, where the top managers of each sector can come together for brief periods and deliberate on mutual problems and their solutions and national policies.

Training environments and methods

If a programme of this type is launched, the numbers involved will evidently be large. It is a matter for consideration whether the universities and Institutes of Public Administration can be asked to take a hand in this important sphere. Alternatively, Government could think of establishing a Staff College. New training methods and techniques will have to be employed. The case study technique will be amongst the important techniques, since the programmes will be dealing not with raw recruits but personnel who already have varied periods of experience in practical administration.

Some cognate issues

The training programmes which we have sketched raises certain cognate issues. Inevitably, the trainees will have to be chosen for their competence and their capacity for future growth and the selection process will have to embrace all sectors of the higher civil service. Once selected and trained, the trainees will expect to move to higher, irrespective of their service origins. The significance of this factor has been stressed at the Review Courses in the Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad and has been expressed as follows :

“Training cannot make much impression if it is not what job you handle and how will you do it, but whom you know and where and how you happen to be placed that matters...or if membership of certain services is essential for progress, no matter how good the performance of others may be or if in placing individuals the authorities take no account of aptitudes, experience and personal preferences, or if in administering rules Senior levels appear to obtain the benefit of relaxation denied to others, etc.”

If, therefore, management training acts as a leveller, Government will have to consider structural changes in the different Services, so as to make it possible for those who are most competent, to reach higher management irrespective of Service nomenclature.

Ultimately the recognition and acceptance of the need for training in mid-career for the higher management at different levels will necessitate some rethinking on the existing approach

towards the initial recruitment of all the higher civil services and the answer may well be unified approach.

An issue that worries most observers of personnel management in India today is the almost complete absence of a conscious and deliberate attempt at carrier planning even at higher levels. The need for this can never be over-emphasised. The scheme for selection and training of personnel meant to occupy higher administrative positions, thrown open for discussion in this paper, will make this career planning possible. Since even in the broad area of higher management/administration we have advocated specialisation within a broad range of governmental activities, a formal framework of career-planning will have been provided.

The questions to consider are :

- (i) Is there need for mid-career training of civil servants ?
- (ii) Should the avenue for higher administrative positions be open to all Services—generalist as well as technical and their training organised appropriately ?
- (iii) Should further advancement in the higher administrative positions after satisfactory mid-career training be dependent upon the Service to which a person belongs, or should it depend on competence, matched with special requirements of the job ?
- (iv) Will this need structural changes in the present Service cadres and if so what changes are necessary ?

Employer-Employee Relations

The area of employer-employee relations is so large and all-pervading that it would be impossible for the Conference to cover it fully in the course of discussions in an afternoon. We may, therefore, confine ourselves only to some of the major issues. It may also not be possible to cover a large section of employees governed by the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947.

The basic objective of any organisation is the achievement of its goals with minimum effort and minimum cost. The employer-employee relations must, therefore, be tuned to the satisfaction of this objective. Broadly, there are two aspects of this relationship: (1) promotional or positive aspects; and (2) corrective or negative aspects.

The promotional or positive aspects would include:

- (1) administrative leadership;
- (2) group acceptance of organisational goals;
- (3) union activity;
- (4) right to political activity;
- (5) discipline;
- (6) incentives;
- (7) welfare; and
- (8) employer-employee cooperation.

The preventive or negative aspects would comprise chiefly various aspects of discipline amongst the employees. The two sides cannot be said to be mutually exclusive as both intimately act and interact on each other.

Broad Context

Before we go into some of these issues, let us see the present-day context within which the employer-employee relationship actually operates. The following are some of the important elements which determine the general climate:

- (1) First and the most important fact is that our national scene is in the throes of a very swift process of change. This has resulted in an unprecedented stress and strain in all aspects of the national life. The old mores are giving way in many fields and the new

mores are yet to get established. The individual is impatient to shake off traditional and outward restrictions but has yet not imbibed the spirit of inner-discipline. In particular,

- (i) the democratic spirit makes every individual keep his head high; everyone asserts his rights but not as many acknowledge their duties and responsibilities ;
 - (ii) the pre-Independence agitational approach in all walks of life unfortunately continues with us with a still higher vigour—it prevails in even educational institutions. An employer who is a product of the social climate in general and the nation's educational institutions in particular—consciously or unconsciously shares that approach which is added and abetted by other socio-psychological stresses and strains.
- (2) Of late, a feeling of defeatism has grown and many Government employees share this feeling. For them nothing appears to work and, therefore, nothing appears to be of value. This leads them to become indifferent about their work.
 - (3) Some employees feel that there are far too many doing too little work. Nothing is more conducive to discipline and high morale than a full day's honest work which an employee accepts as his due. Over-staffing for so many reasons, therefore, leads to feelings of frustration and resentment.
 - (4) Unfortunately, the bureaucracy in India, rightly or wrongly, has had more than its share of criticism both from the public and from the political executive whom they serve. To some extent, the prejudice against them is the result of rather antagonistic relationship in the pre-Independence days. It is hardly realised that a new generation of civil servants is taking over. Also there is a tendency to find scape-goats amongst civil servants for failures at any levels and for any reason.
 - (5) The general cost of living has been increasing very fast. Salaries are prone to lag behind, particularly

so in Government. Thus, a continuing inflationary spiral of rising prices has led to a situation where almost every employee finds himself personally affected and feels that he is not given a fair deal.

- (6) The salaries of middle and higher levels in Government have not risen while persons in comparable posts outside have gone up during the last two decades. This has given rise to a feeling of being deprived in a large section of these employees.
- (7) The post-Independence period saw an unprecedented growth of the machinery of Government. So long as the expansion was fast, the average employee could look forward to avenues of promotion and in fact during the past 20 years, there has been unprecedented rate of vertical mobility. The slowing down of the growth of this machinery has resulted in a drastic decline in this mobility. Thus, the Government has now within its ranks a very large number of comparatively *younger* employees who came in with high expectations but who are now faced with prospects of very low promotion opportunities. Added to this is the fact of expanding private sector and public sector enterprises. Government employees see their contemporaries and equals in these sectors moving up while they remain where they are.
- (8) The increasing burden of bureaucracy on public exchequer has led to some serious talk about reduction in its strength. In the context of increasing unemployment, this situation leads to a psychology of closing in of ranks and an aggressive posture to any suggestions which may even indirectly can be said to really have or imagined to have possibilities of affecting interests of any group whatsoever.

Administrative leadership

Nothing is more important to the question of employer-employee relationship and employee effectiveness and morale than the administrative leadership. Leadership in any situation can be imagined to be an intermediate point in the spectrum, one end of which is "authoritarian control" and the other end

“sharing of responsibility”. The administrative apparatus free India inherited had a special feature : there was sharing of responsibility at the top by an administrative oligarchy and an authoritarian control down the line. In a democratic situation, it appears that the concept of team work with higher authorities assuming the role of leaders is more appropriate to tap the immense potentialities of human endeavour for creative activity and for “total mobilisation of total ability for total achievement”. In the transitional phase the difficulty arises because of the dichotomy between traditional order and the emerging rational organisation. Even the products of democratic processes finding themselves in positions of authority tend to believe exclusively in authoritarian approach. In fact, one is frequently faced with a situation where he has to operate almost at two levels. In certain spheres, an authoritarian control appears necessary and desirable while in others, sharing of responsibility becomes crucial. This is the key issue in administrative leadership. In particular, some of the more important questions are :

- (1) What needs to be done to get more delegation of authority from higher administrators and ministers ?
What is needed to transform them from commanders to leaders ?
- (2) Is there a way to spot potential leadership and help it come to top ?
- (3) Is it possible to develop such a leadership by career planning and suitable institutional arrangements ?
If yes, what can we suggest ?

Group acceptance of organisational goals

The area of public administration, specially in a developing economy, is fortunate in the sense that it is capable of creating the highest possible potential for creative activity amongst its participants. In general, Government officers comprise that rare group which can perceive a direct relationship between their actions and results beneficial to the community as a whole. Different departments are, however, differently blessed in this respect. In organisations, reaching the field level or directly performing productive functions, this relationship is very intimate and direct ; as one moves away from the

field, it becomes somewhat indirect though qualitatively of a higher order. This potential for creative activity is not being exploited systematically and consciously. Part of the reason appears to be the co-existence of old postures and new functions which tend to transform even the actual fact of active participation into a formal relationship of authority and command. Also, there is no conscious evaluation of the role of the individual organisation in the overall functions of Government as a whole. The role of even the smallest organisation can be described in terms of its positive contribution to the overall national effort and the adverse effects of any failure highlighted.

And, internally, every organisation needs to have a system of communication by which every member of the organisation gets informed of organisation goals, policies, procedures, etc., and *vice versa*, by which, every employee can feed-back his own responses for a meaningful inter-action. The workers, when fully convinced of their importance in this context, would then have a sense of participation in the great endeavour of national development. How best can this sense of personal involvement be heightened and purposiveness of the action of each individual serving in his own humble way highlighted ?

Union activity

There are two basic questions to be answered under this head :

- (1) What restraints, if any, may be imposed on the right of Government employees to form service associations ?
- (2) Should Government servants be free to participate in a demonstration or to resort to strike in connection with matters pertaining to their conditions of service.

The role of and attitude towards employee associations and unions have undergone a fundamental change the world over since the beginning of this century. Till recently the Union Government considered it necessary to allow its employees to join only those unions which it considered fit for the purpose. The relevant rule in the Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, has, however, been struck down as *ultra vires* the Constitution by the courts. The rule as now stands is :

“No Government servant shall join, or continue to be

a member of an association, the objects or activities of which are prejudicial to the interest of the sovereignty and integrity of India or public order or morality.”

This rule gives almost an unlimited and unfettered right to form associations. A view has often been expressed that this provision is not conducive to maintenance of discipline and there should be some restrictions on the forming of associations, if necessary, even by an amendment of Article 33 of the Constitution. This feeling arises from the associated question of a right to demonstrations and strikes. The organisations of employees press their claim on the ground that they should have a right to demonstrate in order to arouse public conscience about their grievances and that they should also have an ultimate right of a worker to withdraw his labour. In fact, judicial pronouncements have given employees the right to demonstration, subject to the condition that it is not “prejudicial to the interest of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the state, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, or which involves contempt of court, defamation or incitement through an offence”. Thus, employees are now free to organise peaceful demonstrations in support of their legitimate demands against Government. The strike, however, is prohibited and although employees commit no penal offence when resorting to a strike, it is a disciplinary offence.

The growing indiscipline as a result of various complex factors which determine our general climate in the country today, has led to serious thought being given to the question of putting legal restrictions on demonstration by public servants within a specified area and during specified hours. The argument goes that the present state of “no restraint on demonstrations” is eroding the sense of discipline very fast and the authorities have to watch acts of indiscipline helplessly.

The question is whether there should be restrictions on the rights acquired by employees by a process of evolution through judicial pronouncements? If so, what should be their form?

The question of strike by Government servants has assumed particularly serious proportions during the past two years. Recently pen down strikes have been witnessed in

various state governments. The teachers of Delhi Administration have gone on indefinite strike when the students are just preparing for their examinations. Various committees and groups have been persistently holding the view that it is wrong that public servants should resort to strike or threaten to do so. They are the trustees of their responsibility for operating services essential to the life of the community and should not seek to disorganise and interrupt those services in order to promote their interest. In practice, however, it is an open secret that the erring Government servants in this regard, have been getting their demands accepted. Also, although a formal character of a negotiated agreement is given to the final solution, in the public eye and, more importantly, in the eyes of the employees themselves, the benefits are directly credited to their "direct action" and agitational approach. This is so in many other sectors of national life also. Agitational approach seems to be a rule with all interest groups—even the student community which can hardly be considered as comprising an interest group. The belief has gone home that anything can be got if sufficient pressure can be built up for it. There have been but few occasions where Government may have succeeded against a well-organised pressure group ; thus this serious violation of conduct rules almost goes unpunished. How should the present situation be retrieved is the big question ?

The solution may lie, on the one hand, in establishing institutional arrangement by which causes of discontent amongst employees are continuously attended to so that they do not accumulate and reach a breaking point. On the other hand, there may be a self-imposed restraint on Government from allowing benefits to accrue to any group of employees as a direct consequence of a strike or a threatened strike.

In this connection, the law prevalent in the United States is of some interest. Public Law 330, 84th Congress, provides that "no person shall accept or hold office or employment in the Government of the United States or any agency thereof including wholly owned Government corporations who participates in any strike or asserts the right to strike against Government of the United States or such agency". Violation of this provision is a felony punishable with a fine or

imprisonment. These restrictions are far more stringent than those obtaining in India. It is doubtful, however, if in the present-day context, it will be possible to introduce such a provision or even a comparable one. The prevailing political instability in many States and the prospects of political groups trying to win favour by supporting the cause of this large and influential section of the society would seem to complicate the issue further. Perhaps, we could try to advance in this direction. What steps should be taken to achieve this ?

The connected problem with regard to the employee unions and associations is to make their role more purposive and positive. It is unfortunately a fact that the development of union and association activities gets strengthened and comes to the fore only when a conflict situation arises. As soon as stresses and strains are relieved whether as a result of negotiation or a successful strike, the association activity disappears from the scene. The association activity could be channelised in creating a favourable group climate for increased productivity and for promotion of desirable work aptitudes which go to strengthen individual's pride in his workmanship and his sense of belongingness to the organisation and thus make a positive contribution to the national objectives. But it is also a fact that the Administration also forgets all about unions and associations during the time of peace and there is no conscious effort to channelise the association or union's efforts towards constructive directions. What positive steps could be taken to motivate employees associations to accept this positive role as one of their more legitimate functions ? Proper education, training of leadership, a better rapport between the administration and the employee union on a more informal basis, etc., could help us to some extent in this direction.

Right to political activity

It would be anomalous to talk about granting of right to political activity in the same breath as of imposing restrictions on forming of associations and participating in demonstrations. But there has been a consistent demand for such rights the world over and employees in India have also been pressing for the same. Political rights can be of various types and can be exercised at different levels of national activity. They may

take the form of (i) voting ; (ii) canvassing ; (iii) joining a political party, or (iv) contesting an election. It can be exercised at purely (a) local levels—gram panchayat, block samiti, zilla parishad ; (b) state level ; or (c) national level.

Our Constitution gives the right to vote to all individuals who are not less than 21 years of age and who do not suffer from other disqualifications. The other rights, however, are not at all available to Government servants. But it is argued, why should a Government employee be treated differently from the citizen. In the United Kingdom, restrictions on political activities by Government servants have been liberalised to a great extent. About two thirds of the Government servants (industrial and non-Industrial) are completely free from the restrictions and about a quarter are free, subject to the acceptance of the need for discretion to take part in all activities (except Parliamentary candidature) and national political activities. Even in this last group as many as possible of them who so wish are given permission to take part in local government and political activities of the local field. Those who are completely free of the restrictions include the executives, the professional scientist, technical and administrative grades. Should similar liberalisation be thought of here in respect of certain sections of Government employees ?

The Second Pay Commission examined this question in some detail. They compared the position obtaining in other countries where more political rights including contesting elections are available to Government servants. They, however, came to the conclusion that what may be sound and feasible in a homogeneous community like, say, in the United Kingdom with a long established tradition of democratic Government may not be necessarily sound and feasible in India. They thought that "relaxation in the existing restrictions on political rights of civil servants would not be in a public interest or in the interest of the employees themselves".

The political situation in the country has undergone considerable change since the report of the Second Pay Commission. On the positive side, one may point out to the advent of democracy at the grass-roots—the acceptance of the principle of responsible government even at the lowest levels—village, anchal and the block. This has considerably

increased the levels at which an individual could profitably participate in legitimate political activity. On the other hand, this step has brought within the ambit of public sector a much larger number of employees. There has also been an attempt to keep the representative governments at lower levels beyond the pale of political activity, which, however, does not seem to have been much of a success. On the negative side can be cited the unsettling influence which political instability seems to have introduced in recent years. This makes it necessary for public servants to be above political controversy. Thus, one set of forces seems to call for the giving of political rights, even though they be limited in content and to certain categories of employees. The other set of forces points to the potential dangers which any such concession may build up. The question we have to consider is : should we change the *status quo* ? If so, to what extent ?

Discipline

It is acknowledged on all sides that there is growing indiscipline in all walks of life and government organisations are no exception. It specially stands in contrast to what obtained in the pre-independence days. The primary source of discipline will always be within the individual, no amount of outward discipline can really make an individual disciplined in the real sense of the term. Unfortunately though the outward trappings remain unchanged, the inner motivation for self-discipline is on the decline. Some of the important factors which are responsible for this are :

- (1) Growth of the negative aspects of Employee Union activity ;
- (2) Interference of political executive and other pressure groups in purely departmental matters ;
- (3) Growth of extra organisational loyalties like caste, region, community, language ;
- (4) Delay in punishment of delinquents ; and
- (5) A general sense of dissatisfaction of inequitable treatment supported by the apparent contradictions between the precept of socialistic pattern and the reality of growing disparities.

The questions we may ask, therefore, are : what steps

should be taken to instil a sense of inner discipline amongst the employees ? What steps should be taken to see that the delinquent is punished promptly and there is a genuine fear of authority in those who violate the law ? What steps should be taken to instil confidence in the employees in the fairness of disciplinary machinery ?

Incentive

We have earlier noted that in some respects government organisations are fortunate ; for example, the feeling of serving the nation can be a morale booster for employees. In some other respects, however, they are rather not so well placed. For example, there is no adequate incentive because (1) much of the work is not amenable to precise measurement; (2) its operations consisting mostly of non-profit making activities, there can be no payment of bonus or other liberal financial awards. It is, therefore, said that public administration breeds mediocrity because it neither rewards the good nor punishes the indifferent. Seen in this context, well-designed promotion policies and disciplinary procedures are in fact two important factors of overall incentive design for public administration.

Notwithstanding this there have been some attempts at instituting a few incentive schemes. For example there is a provision of cash awards for outstanding performance of non-gazetted clerical staff in some ministries and a suggestions scheme has also been in operation now for some. Merit promotion and advance increment have been instituted in the scientific and technical departments of the Government of India. Promotion need not await occurrence of regular vacancy ; a supernumerary post at the next higher level can be created (subject to some restrictions) for outstanding persons.

These schemes, however, do not seem to have a perceptible impact on the working of Government as a whole. The whole area of incentive schemes, therefore, appears to await a more vigorous and purposive approach for its full exploitation.

One broad feature of incentive schemes is that cash incentives have had to be restricted to the lower group of employees (who, however, constitute more than 98 per cent of the total work force). The motivation of employees in the middle and higher groups, has been aimed at through

non-monetary incentives. There could be some exception to this rule, say, (1) in the form of national awards for employees in the lower grades as well, and (2) institution of cash awards for all levels for acquiring skills not necessary for official work but desirable for higher proficiency, for example, learning an additional language or doing some original work in the field of public administration or related fields.

For instituting an effective incentive scheme, it would seem that the prescription of work norms for the repetitive jobs is the first essential pre-requisite. This may take time but a beginning should be made in simpler skill, for example, that of typists. Continuous outstanding work or acquisition of higher proficiency in typing should be rewarded through advance increments or special pays. Even in areas where no work norms can be instituted immediately, some *ad hoc* method of recognising outstanding merit and suitably rewarding could be devised.

Another related area is of placement policy. It could be so designed that the merit is recognised and suitably rewarded. It should be possible to list difficult assignments which either require special abilities or call for greater sacrifices of personal comfort, etc. Individuals could be specially selected for these jobs. This fact should be made known to the individual, his colleagues and publicised amongst his reference group. It should be recorded in the personal file also. Such a scheme will provide incentive to both who are chosen and those who aspire for recognition.

There are well recognised methods of recognising meritorious work in the Armed Forces and in the Police. For example, in Police continuous spell of high standard of work or an exceptional piece of individual act is rewarded with the Indian Police Medal or even the President Police Medal. Of late, some national rewards like Padma Shri, Padma Bhushan and Padma Vibhushan are being given to civil servants for meritorious work. However, this does not even meet the fringe of the problem. Good work just gets recorded in confidential rolls, at best, and consigned to archives. Public administration by itself is such a big activity and involves such a large number of employees that there is a strong case for instituting appropriate awards for recognising performance over

a long period at all levels—what concrete shape should this suggestion be given ?

Welfare

In a broad sense, all the items which we have discussed so far and also the questions of pay policy and conditions of service, etc., are covered by employee welfare. However, there are some specific points which need special consideration. There are three aspects of welfare activity :

- (1) ensuring that an employee gets his due without much delay or difficulty and providing him necessary assistance for this ;
- (2) providing him working conditions such that his efficiency is maintained and he gets maximum job satisfaction ; and
- (3) providing facilities outside his working hours to satisfy his human needs and to enable him to devote undivided attention to his work.

These principles have been recognised by Government in India and some institutional arrangements have been attempted. By and large, every large organisation has a Welfare Officer who is charged with welfare functions. State Governments, however, seem to be lagging behind in this field, particularly because of financial implications of such schemes. It is true that welfare activity has to be consistent with the financial resources of Government and with the complement of employees which the state sector employs (93.6 millions in 1967) welfare activity even on a modest scale is bound to entail heavy financial commitments. Sometimes exorbitant demands with considerable financial implications are put forward on the plea of employee welfare. It is but natural that an average employee should set his standards against that they see as being enjoyed by those higher in the echelon. This has created rather a vicious circle. The real purpose of welfare activity seems to be lost in the clamour for still higher and higher facilities in office and at home. This, however, does not imply that the lower staff has all what it should or what could be given ; it only indicates the psychology at work. As already stated the resources of the community would determine the tangible physical facilities of welfare which can be provided to the

employees and, therefore, as a corollary, it is the average standard of the community which must determine standards of physical comfort and other amenities of employees who are there to serve the community. There should be a conscious realisation of this relationship at all levels. If necessary, amenities of those who themselves are decision-makers should be curtailed to conform to these standards. It is, therefore, that the priorities so far as the physical facilities are concerned have to be fixed in relation to the intensity of necessity of each item, its compatibility with the comfort level of the community and the financial resources which can be set aside for this purpose.

In this context, what are the items that should be given priority in the welfare schemes of Government? The following is a suggestive list :

- (i) neat and tidy working place, maybe, with low specifications ;
- (ii) functional inexpensive furniture ;
- (iii) a cheap and efficient transport system attuned to the requirements of employees ;
- (iv) reasonably good educational institutions with boarding facilities for children of such employees who are transferred in the middle of a session or in the midst of a continuing course of study ;
- (v) well located consumer cooperative stores ;
- (vi) well designed utility residential accommodation; provision of inexpensive utilitarian recreational facilities; and
- (vii) provision of a good medical service.

The more important part of welfare with much less financial commitment and, therefore, practicability is the human relation side. The individual employee should be treated as an individual and not a statistical entity in the organisational registers. There should be an efficient and adequate machinery to see that the employee gets his due without any delay or much botheration. For example, if he goes on leave, he should get his pay and travelling allowance in good time; medical charges are to be reimbursed promptly; transfers, if any, take humane view of his problems. The welfare officers need concentrate on these aspects of welfare activity.

There is a positive side of the human relations side. We have already dwelled on the question of personal involvement of each employee in the organisational goal. Welfare would flow automatically from a right human relations approach. In the new democratic set-up, there may be a conscious effort to break the reserve between different hierarchical levels and open a dialogue on equal footing in which each participant is a member of one team carrying on his assigned task. The welfare organisation could take a leading role in the process of this transformation. How actually should this process be started? How should the psychological barriers be pulled down? Are some of the questions to be answered?

The increased tensions of the modern life also require an increasing degree of what is termed as "Employee Counselling". It could be a legitimate function of the welfare unit—the Welfare Officer himself may take a leading role. The purpose is to give "a psychological support to the personality" and it is "a method of getting the employee to understand the cause of any dissatisfaction they may have and do something about it themselves whenever practicable". What institutional arrangements could be suggested to this end?

Employer-employee cooperation

The recent constitution of a Joint Consultative Machinery for Union Government employees with the object of promoting harmonious relation and of securing cooperation between the Government and its employees is an important step in this direction. The scope of this Council would cover "all matters relating to conditions of service and work, welfare of the employees and improvement of efficiency and standards of work". It excludes specifically individual cases from its purview and limits consultation with regard to "recruitment, promotion and discipline to matters of general principles". The scheme envisages compulsory arbitration in matters of (i) pay and allowances; (ii) weekly hours of work; and (iii) leave.

The above scheme is still in its infancy and it is not possible to assess the effect it will have on the employee-employer relations. The basic principles underlying it seem to be in tune with the spirit of the time. We could only wish that Government and employees associations will do their best to

press the services of this powerful instrument for the furtherance of national interest.

The Conciliation machinery specifically excludes individual cases from its purview. But it is the way individual cases are dealt within each organisation that affects the "atmosphere" of work and employee participation. Two issues are of utmost importance in this respect. They are procedures for : (i) promotion; and (ii) handling of disciplinary cases.

In matter of promotion, the employees always press for as clear and objective a criterion as possible whereas the existing system suffers from serious inadequacies in this regard. Promotion is generally based on an individual's confidential record. But an average employee by and large remains in the dark about the quality of his performance unless it is definitely bad. He comes to know of the overall assessment of his work over a long period for the first time when he is considered for promotion. Even the fact whether he is in the zone of promotion is kept secret. This appears to be a rather unsatisfactory state for employee morale.

Another factor which contributes in the same direction is that the criteria for promotion are also not made known. Recruitment rules, where they exist, merely state conditions of eligibility in terms of length of service. The Departmental Promotion Committees may at their discretion take into account the performance of an individual either over the last three years, or the last five years or even the entire career. Similarly, what methods of classification will be adopted on a particular occasion (*i.e.*, a five-point scale of outstanding, very good, good, fair and poor or a three-point scale of outstanding, fit for promotion and not fit for promotion) is also a matter of guess. The laying down of some acceptable norms may perhaps go a long way in improving matters and providing greater objectivity in promotions. What steps should we take in this direction?

At present, there is no formal appeal to a higher authority against decision regarding promotions. One view is that there should be administrative tribunals for promotion cases as well. There is a fear that with the introduction of such a rule, almost every promotion may be appealed against. In the context of our present organisational structure, it may soon become essential

to introduce a very high degree of selectivity if quality is to be ensured at all levels. Such a step will mean a good proportion of individuals being passed over and consequently dissatisfied with any promotion decision whatsoever. What then shall we do?

The other alternative would be to make the promotion system more efficient, objective and impartial. Association of independent bodies like public service commission or making it an intradepartmental affair may also help to win employee confidence. The criteria adopted may be made better known and the entire process subjected to more public gaze.

To recapitulate, the Conference may, in the context of the present-day employer-employee relationships, focus attention on the following questions :

- (1) What needs to be done to get more delegation of authority from higher administrators and ministers ?
- (2) Is there a way to spot potential leadership and help it to come to top ?
- (3) Is it possible to develop such a leadership by career planning and suitable institutional arrangements ? If yes, what can we suggest ?
- (4) How can a sense of participation in the great endeavour of national development and purposive action on the part of each Government employee be assured ?
- (5) What restraints, if any, may be imposed on the rights of Government employees to form service associations, to demonstrate and to strike ?
- (6) What measures can be taken to make the role of unions and associations more purposive and positive ?
- (7) Should the existing restrictions on political rights of civil servants be relaxed, and, if so, to what extent ?
- (8) What steps should be taken to instil a sense of inner discipline amongst the employees ?
- (9) What steps should be taken to see that the delinquent is punished promptly and there is a genuine fear of authority in those who violate the law.
- (10) What steps should be taken to instil confidence in the employees in the fairness of disciplinary machinery ?
- (11) What should be done to recognise outstanding merit

and to reward it suitably ?

- (12) What items should be given priority in welfare schemes of Government ?
- (13) What steps should be taken to break the reserve between different hierarchical levels ?
- (14) What institutional arrangement could be made with regard to "Employee Counselling" ?
- (15) As an aid to better employer-employee cooperation, what improvements could be made in the current procedures for promotion of employees ?

Annexure VI

Position Classification A SYNOPTIC PRESENTATION

I. What it is

- A. Position classification : *a method of organising assignments for the management of personnel affairs.*
- B. Centre of attention : *duties, responsibilities, skills needed—the demands of the job or the assignment.*
- C. Based on—*job analysis and evaluation.*
- D. Purpose—
 - 1. To find out *what work is really performed.*
 - 2. To match skills people have with skills needed.
 - 3. To provide basis for *rational pay policy* related to the *degree* of contribution of the worker.
- E. Techniques :
 - 1. Description of *jobs.*
 - 2. Development of *standards.*
 - 3. Classification of positions *in line* with standards.
 - 4. *Continuous* adjustment.
 - 5. *Trained staff* to operate.
- F. Criteria for evaluation of jobs :
 - 1. *Nature* of occupational field.
 - 2. *Complexity* and difficulty of duties.
 - 3. *Magnitude* or scope of responsibility.
 - 4. *Knowledge* or skill needed (and what it takes to acquire it).
 - 5. *Impact* or consequence of action or decision.

II. Focus on the Job

The key difference between rank-in-job or the position concept and rank-in-man or the rank concept is the degree to which the nature of a current assignment is the major controlling factor in

setting the individual worker's pay,
determining promotion and his career prospects,
providing a base for appraisal of his performance,

serving as a mark of prestige,
capitalising on his specialised skills.

III. Some Misconceptions

Misconceptions About Distinctions Between Rank-in-Man and Rank-in-job Systems :

1. That rank-in-man is necessary for mobility.
but mobility *can be* specifically facilitated under rank-in-job system.
2. That rank-in-man is necessary for allegiance to a total service rather than a specific job or unit.
not so with *induced mobility and credit for such* in promotion under rank-in-job.
3. That classification systems to implement rank-in-job require too much detail and refinement to insure maintenance—true in many cases, but can be simplified with
broader categorisation of occupations and levels,
simpler job descriptions,
wider training
4. That pay flexibility is greater under rank-in-man.
not so : can be rigid or flexible under either system.
5. That rank-in-man can better attract promising people for careers.
careers equally possible under rank-in-job;
rank-in-man over-emphasizes promotability and under-emphasizes current job.

IV. Two Relevant Principles

There are two prime principles that emerge from experience in the development of personnel policy for large organisations which seem to be inescapable :

1. *The best, the most durable, the most energising motivation comes from the work itself.* In other words, the nature and kind of work is something which
attracts people,
excites their continuing interest,
keeps them plugging away.
2. *The evaluation of individual performance is still a very*

subjective process. Efforts to standardise it and make it objective have almost consistently failed or at least languished. No "rating" system in any enterprise lasts for more than a few years without need for major overhaul.

Employees and managers find it difficult to summarise all aspects of an individual's performance at a given time :

face up to a generalised personal confrontation on performance, as distinguished from the easier process of calling attention to superior or inferior performance as each specific occasion requires.

The results of application of these principles to the rank-in-job and rank-in-man systems of personnel administration suggest the following :

1. Because, under a rank-in-man system, an individual's career inheres in a total service (or part of a service) rather than in a specific job or activity at any given time, it is more critically dependent upon the validity and reliability of the performance evaluation process used; that is, the individual's career is based on periodic examination of appraisals by various individuals to whom he is assigned. His "promotion" depends usually upon some kind of third-party-review of these appraisals (*e.g.*, promotion panels in our Foreign Service, review boards in military service, etc.)—or upon straight seniority.

In short, the success of a rank-in-man system is heavily dependent upon the success of overall evaluation processes, which in the last analysis must be highly subjective and rationalised ultimately by bringing to bear the judgments of a group of people on the several recorded evaluations by different persons that have been made about an individual's past performance. (This is sometimes supplemented by appraisals through oral interview panels.)

2. The other consequence of applying the above principles is that the rank-in-man system loses the opportunity—much more so than the rank-in-job system—to capitalise upon the motivation that derives from

work.

When an individual's attitude toward a particular assignment from the outset (upon taking the assignment) is that this will be a transitory matter when he is certain that at the expiration of either a fixed or an approximately-fixed period he will be transferred out of this assignment, he does not "warm up" to the specific challenges of the assignment in the same fashion that he does when accepting an assignment under the rank-in-job concept. In the latter case he cannot be too sure what will happen to him next. (Under wise administration of a rank-in-job system, of course, he should be advised of potential job ladders, prospects for other assignments, etc., if he performs well.) Consequently, he feels that his performance here and now on this particular job is by all odds the most critical factor relating to his future; it is not susceptible to being modified or adulterated by a definite prospect of its termination or by balancing out with successes and failures in past or future assignments. Today's performance is a "make or break" critical factor. Furthermore, if he genuinely is attracted to and likes a particular assignment, his motivation is held high because he has every expectation that he can—

stay on it indefinitely

and/or

even develop *in* the job, with the result that promotion (through reclassification) could come from the same assignment.

In short, advancement and success in general derives more specifically from *any one current assignment* under the rank-in-job approach than from the rank-in-man approach.

Finally, the rank-in-job approach takes greater advantage of the world of specialisation. As technological and human needs continue to advance and get more complicated, specialisation becomes all the more necessary. Rank-in-man system actually reflects the culture of a rapidly disappearing world—one in which things administrative and many things professional could be accomplished by the "generalist". Important as some

features of generalism are, we cannot escape the need to capitalise on specialisation. Furthermore, the genuine virtues of the overall generalist approach can be achieved by adequate doses of

training, and
planned mobility.

An individual does not have to be kept on a specific assignment for life in order to take advantage of his interest and aptitudes for a particular specialisation, although there will always be many instances where because of the *degree* of specialisation such narrow career confines will be unavoidable. Nevertheless, within broad occupational boundaries, sufficient lateral and vertical movement *can* be generated under a rank-in-job system and still avoid the "lack-of-attachment-to-job" aspect of the rank-in-man system.

V. Some special problems with rank-in-man

In United States experience some of the following problems with rank-in-man systems have been encountered :

1. An attitude tends to be built up that "promotion" is inevitable.
2. The counter-balancing feature (in theory) of "selection out" either

results in a declining use of the selection-out procedure.

or

the forcing out of persons completely able to perform effectively at a certain level but unable to compete successfully with their colleagues for further advancement upward (a wasteful sloughing off of qualified manpower).

3. Promotions in rank become so far out of correlation with duties assigned that there are either too few persons of adequate rank to assign to principal posts,

or

too many persons promoted to the highest ranks, with the result that many of them have to be used on assignments far beneath their skills, which is

a wasteful utilisation of manpower,
demoralising, and
conductive to misconceptions about the value to
the service of the duties being performed.

4. Planning for future recruitment becomes unrealistic, because so little of it relates to a careful analysis of the numbers of assignments needed, categorised by skill requirements.
5. Imbalances in specializations frequently occur because of the effort to contort administrative needs into the pattern of a "generalist system" that no longer serves those needs.

VI. *Necessary characteristics of modern position classification*

Whatever may exist in practice in some places a rank-in-job system would appear to be most practical when the position classification scheme in pursuance of such a career system entails the following features :

1. Some adequate provision for definition and evaluation of individual position assignments.
2. Recognition of the *evolution* of jobs and provision for continuing evaluation to take.
3. Recognition of "The Impact of the Man"—the result of the particular qualities, skills, and aptitudes of an individual on a job, thereby possibly making it *different* from when it is performed by another individual.
4. Heavy involvement of general management in the position evaluation process :
 - (a) Seeing that they define the duties that they want performed clearly and definitely.
 - (b) Avoiding overlapping in delegations and assignments.
 - (c) Getting involved in the job evaluation process.
 - (d) Getting especially involved in setting the criteria or standards by which jobs in a given occupational field are to be evaluated or graded.
5. The outlines of a classification plan and the breadth or size of position classes that are sufficiently refined to permit sensible classification but not so over

refined that too much energy is expended in spinning out useless distinctions, either as to level or as to occupational demarcation. (The trend in recent years in the United States Government classification system has been to *combine* many of what heretofore have been identified as separate occupational categories ; but we have not been able to reduce the number of levels.)

VII. Examples of genuine career systems in U.S. with high mobility under a rank-in-job personnel system

1. National Park Service
2. United States Forest Service
3. Federal Bureau of Investigations
4. Bureau of the Budget
5. Civil Service Commission—especially Bureau of Personnel Investigations and the Commission's field organisation in general
6. Food and Drug Administration (HEW)
7. Social Security Administration (HEW)
8. Internal Revenue Service (Treasury)

VIII. Narrowing of differences between rank-in-man and rank-in-job

Although the systems differ markedly in theory, in actual practice rank-in-man and rank-in-job systems in the United States are taking on more and more characteristics of each other. This is evidenced by :

1. Increased reliance on job analysis to determine placement of career men in rank-in-man systems. (This is the most important development.)
2. Increasing salary flexibility attached to job classification systems. (This is the companion important development in the rank-in-job approach).
3. Middle management, mid-career professional, and executive training under both systems is coming to be the prime source of ensuring a "service-wide" attitude. (Hence, it is less necessary to rely on the characteristics of the personnel system to induce this.)
4. The unrelenting forces of reliance on specialisation

have meant:

more accommodation to this necessity in rank-in-man systems ;

more care to avoid over-refined specialisations in rank-in-job system.

5. Many features of rank-in-man reliance on "tenure in the service", as distinguished from "tenure in the job", have become applicable to rank-in-job systems.

The net effect of this appears to be :

1. To ensure more and more application of rank-in-job features to the masses of employment.
2. The application of certain rank-in-man features to horizontal strata, such as executive levels, rather than to vertical sectors.

In other words, the advantages of pay retention regardless of current assignment, tenure beyond the specific assignment, and emphasis on service wide attitudes (all usually associated with rank-in-man systems) are more appropriate in the upper levels of the service than they are for a vertical segment of the service. Furthermore, this approach is more democratic. Instead of preserving a particular area of work such as administrative work, for a group of persons with special career preparation and aspirations, advancement into higher ranks of a system that has rank-in-job characteristics comes from any source in the service where people can meet the rigorous qualification requirements. This is something of the theory upon which the United States Government's new Executive Assignment System is founded.

IX. Some incidental Advantages of Position Classification Processes

1. Identification and qualification of work for budget planning and determining alternative courses of action.
2. Clarification of organisational structure.
3. Specification (or revision) of producers and flows of work.
4. Providing raw material for job redesign :
to minimise demands for high-skill personnel ;
to maximise opportunities for low-skill candidates.

X. Important requisites to make a classification system work

1. Preparation of managers, supervisors and employees.
2. Training of job analysts (classifiers)—specialists in occupations.
3. Careful assembly of information about jobs (*i.e.*, IIPA study of Department of Family Planning).
4. Development of standards and criteria; keeping up to date.
5. Opportunity for ready provision of classifications when duties change.
6. Involvement of specialised knowledge of managers and supervisors. Participation in :
 - Job studies,
 - Standards development,
 - Identifying duties changes,
 - Judging relative value of functions.

